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MUNRO'S TEN CENT HANDY BOOKS

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HOW TO CARVE, SERVE A DINNER,

—AND—

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NEW YORK:
NORMAN L. MUNRO, PUBLISHER,
14 & 16 VANDEWATER ST.

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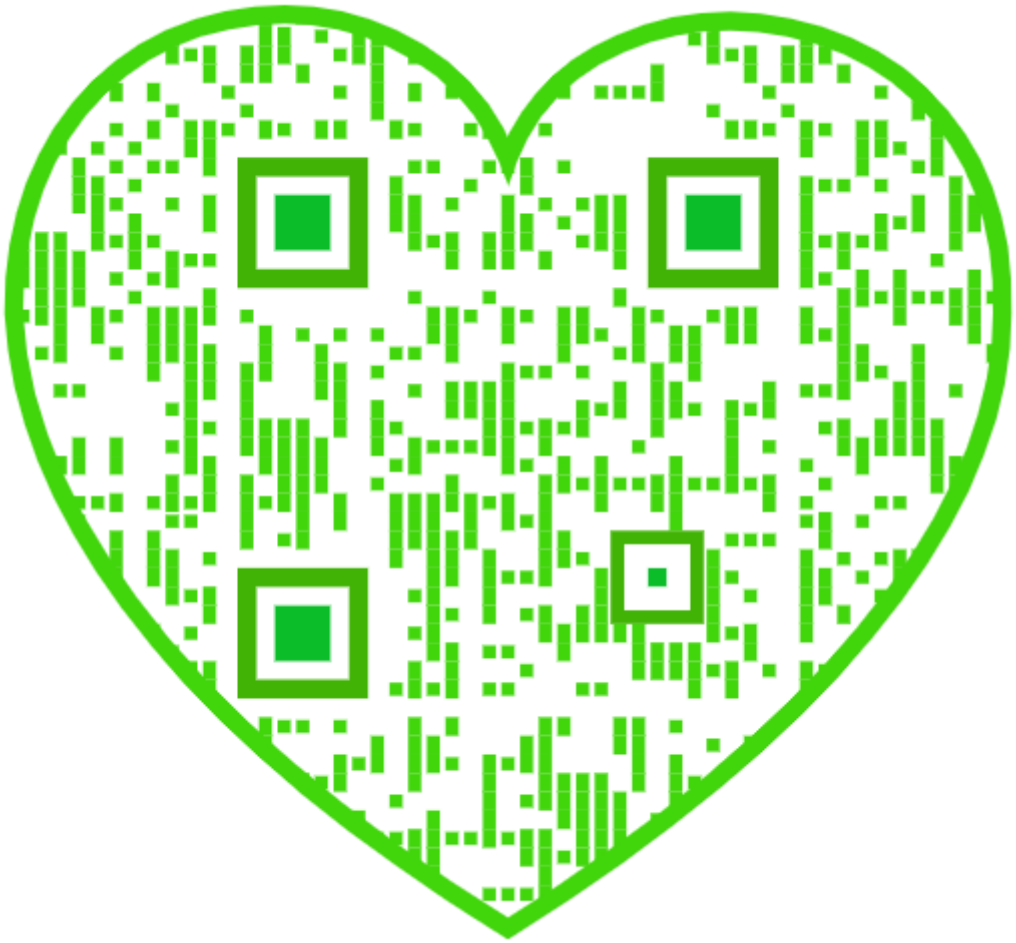

Norman L. Munro, pub

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DUTIES OF THE DINNER-TABLE.

FROM time immemorial the master of the feast has been the server out of the good things placed before his guests, and so the office of carver has always been held in the highest honor. In those early days, when animals were roasted whole, it was the custom to place before each guest some entire joint, in the way that we still do with poultry and game, and the higher the honor intended, the larger the portion.

Benjamin's mess, to mark his brother's love, was "five times so much" as that of any of the other brothers; and the kings of Sparta, according to Herodotus, were honored by a double portion of every dish. As time wore on, and with the spread of civilization greater refinement prevailed, the Greeks served joints instead of whole animals at their tables, and dishes were spread along the board, into which the guests might dip their hands, and help themselves at pleasure.

The Romans held dexterity in carving in high repute: and there were regular professors to teach the art by means of figures of animals cut in wood, and to ensure adroitness and skill, the performance was regulated by the sounds of music, whence carvers were called *Chironemontes*, from the gesture of the hands, which marked the time.

In the ages of chivalry, when the fork was unknown, the small dirk worn at the girdle did the duty of that useful adjunct to the dinner-table, and the household all dined at one and the same board, the family and honored guests above the salt, and the more dependent, with the retainers, below it.

These colossal salt-cellars were of costly manufacture in the establishments of the great; and in our museums they are now treasured, as exhibiting rare specimens of mediæval gold and silver-work. But in those days a banquet was indeed a feast, as will be seen from the curious bill of fare of that given at the installation into the archbishopric of York, in 1470, of George Nevil, the brother of the Earl of Warwick, "the King-maker."

This bill of fare is still preserved amongst the records in the Tower of London. After the guests had partaken of 80 fat oxen, 6 wild bulls, 300 pigs, 1,004 wethers, 300 hogs, 300 calves, 200 kids, and 4,000 bucks and does and roebucks—poultry and birds of every size, amounting in all to no less than 22,204, were served round, besides eggs, jellies, and pastries, hot and cold, numbering some 12,000, and by way of fish, 300 pikes, 300 breams, 8 seals, and 4 porpoises.

The carvers might have been ranged in battle array. Their chief, the great Earl of Warwick himself, who acted as steward, commanded the center, and the wings were intrusted to the Earl

of Bedford, and to the most accomplished gentleman of that day —the Lord Hastings.

But the introduction of the fork by Tom Coryate the traveler, about the year 1610, created quite a revolution in the art of carving. Whatever may be said in favor of foreign cookery over our own, no one will deny that in this country the use of the knife and fork is better understood than it is by any other nation on the face of the earth; for it is seldom that an American, however poor, does not handle them as if from infancy he had been drilled to their use; whilst there are but few foreigners who, even after a lengthened sojourn amongst us, get over the awkwardness of clutching both, either in cutting their food, or more particularly, when dissecting poultry and game—a practice which seems to us as more in accordance with the shambles than with the usages of a well-regulated dinner-table.

Though Coryate, like reformers of all abuses, was ridiculed in his day, and nicknamed Furcifer, or Fork, the usefulness of the new introduction gained it favor in the eyes of Royalty; for Coryate was a servitor of the Prince of Wales, and the sons of James the First were amongst the most polished gentlemen in Europe; so it is to them, next to "Crudity Tom," that we are indebted for this very useful article of every-day life. Thus the fork became popular, and at first two prongs, and then three, were the complement.

It has been said that to the French revolution of 1793 we are indebted for the introduction of the four flat-pronged fork, now made of almost any kind of metal; for as the atrocities of that fearful convulsion drove men into exile, who up to its outbreak had lived in luxury and ease, many brought with them their little stock of silver plate, the last relic of all their property.

French cookery had necessitated a different instrument from our three-pronged fork. Ragouts and vegetable diet might be more readily eaten with a spoon, and probably a spoon split into four prongs was the first idea of a silver fork.

In former days the office of "Grand Carver" was one of dignity in all households; but that was when animals were served up whole.

That office, however, no longer exists; for when the introduction of separate joints superseded the necessity of great bodily strength as well as dexterity in the carver, the host and hosts resumed the duty of assisting their guests at table. Then treatises were written on the art; and carving found its place amongst the accomplishments of polite life. Lord Chesterfield, the great teacher of the superficial polish necessitated by the artificial state of modern manners, makes the art of carving an object of paramount study to the finished man of the world. But in the middle ranks of life the modern science of carving is an accomplishment but too little studied before marriage, and consequently frequently never properly understood; and yet how much of the comfort of a household depends upon the master and mistress's knowledge of this necessary art! Often a dinner is ruined—there is no other word to express the utter destruction of all comfort to the guests—by the ignorance of those who have to serve it out.

"The best carver," says Dr. Kitchener, "is he who fills the greatest quantity of plates in the shortest space of time." Of all the pests of society one of the least endurable is your slow carver. He eyes the joint before him, after the cover has been removed, as if in doubt as to its identity. The gravy is setting and the choice fat getting cold; and then, having at length satisfied himself that the meat is mutton and not beef, he slowly examines his knife to see whether the edge be keen enough, instead of at once plunging right into the middle of the leg, and proving that a good workman can even under difficulties turn out his work to his own satisfaction and that of others. No amount of skill compensates for slowness, and he who can serve four persons in the same time that it takes a dilatory carver to help one, will always carry away the palm from the latter.

There is another rule of equal importance, and that is, to remember that all who sit at the same table, for the time being, enjoy something very nearly approaching to an equality. As each person, therefore, cannot have all choice parts of the joint, we should endeavor so to serve them round, that everyone may come in for a share.

> "Let strict impartiality preside—
> Nor freak, nor favor, nor affection guide."

As it is ill-bred in a guest to ask for any favorite bit, and equally ill-bred in the carver to mention it, when such a predilection is known to the latter as being entertained by anyone at the table, he has the opportunity of paying a compliment, which is sure to be well received.

Many a friendship is strengthened by these little attentions; for the small civilities of life are, after all, the most binding ties, and upon them frequently the whole happiness of home depends. As far as your knowledge of your guests goes,

> Study their genius, caprices, *gout*—
> They in return may haply study you;
> Some wish a pinion, some prefer a leg,
> Some for a merry-thought, or side-bone beg.
> The wings of fowls, thin slices of the Round,
> The trail of woodcock, of codfish the sound,

are but a few of the tit-bits which a good carver should not throw away upon people who pretend "not to mind what they eat." The Johnsonian maxim is best given in the Doctor's own words: "Some people," said he, "have a foolish way of not minding, or pretending not to mind, what they eat; for my part I mind my stomach very studiously and very carefully, and I look upon it that he who does not mind his stomach, will hardly mind anything else.

To carve quickly and neatly requires a good deal of practice, and the earlier in life it is begun, the sooner will that *double left-handed* ignorance be got rid of, which serves but to haggle and destroy the food placed before us. Cold joints are not so difficult to manage as hot, and young people should be encouraged to learn the use of the carving-knife and fork upon them, almost as

soon as the hand is sufficiently developed to grasp the handles.

It cannot have escaped the notice of the most superficial, that a person of refinement enjoys his food all the more when the plate is not overcrowded, but served up in slices neither too thick nor too thin. This rule will apply to all hot joints, whether roast or boiled; and in the case of carcass-joints, the carver should first ascertain whether the cook has previously properly divided the bones; for unless that be done, no one can carve the joint with comfort to himself or those around him.

In the following instructions on carving, which are intended as a companion to THE HANDY BOOK ON DOMESTIC COOKERY, we have taken some pains to point out which joints should be served in thin, and which in thick slices.

A carver should know not only what are, but also what fashion or even caprice may consider the most choice mórsels of every dish placed before him. Venison fat, the delicate fatty slices in that part of a shoulder of mutton which is next to the back bone, the pope's-eye of a leg of mutton, veal and lamb kidney, the ribs and neck of roast pig—the firm gelatinous parts of a cod's head, the thin part of salmon, of all flat fish the thick parts, and of small fish, like mackerel, the piece near the head—the white meat of fowls, the breast and thighs of turkey or goose, the breast and legs of duck, the wings and breasts of game—all these are admitted delicacies. Then, fashion and caprice consider equally so the eye of the cod, and the tongue and the sound of the same fish, the fins of large flat fish, and the head of the carp; the shank of a leg of mutton, the English, or inside of the sirloin of beef, with its marrow fat; the gristles of a breast of veal, and the kidney fat of the loin; the ear and jaw of roast pig, the bitter back of moor game, and the head of pheasant and partridges.

At the dinner-table *made-dishes* form no small part of a well-arranged banquet. The name is suggestive of more elaborate cookery than plain roasting, boiling, frying, or broiling. French dishes are almost all included in this nomenclature, and, therefore, a made-dish, though only cold meat re-dressed, generally also implies a savory and well-seasoned dish. Many of these are covered with glaze. A fricandeau of veal is a favorite dish throughout Europe, and will, perhaps, best illustrate what we wish to say. In helping made-dishes of this description the slices of meat should be about half-an-inch in thickness, because if cut thinner the larding is not helped in due proportion, and that is one reason why, though long since naturalized, it is not always a very successful side-dish in this country. The same applies to *veau a la daube* which is formed out of the loin of veal, the edge-bone being withdrawn, and the hollow thus formed filled with relishing forced-meat. This, also, is usually served in glaze. It is not a dish for a novice to serve, and has chiefly been noticed to inculcate the necessity of always helping, with made-dishes, sufficient of the savory sauces, upon which in so great a measure depends the relish with which ragouts are eaten. There is no end of made-dishes; but most of them require only to be served as they are placed at table, and we have instanced but two, which are favorites, because

an inexperienced hand might not be aware that in general thick slices should be served round.

There is scarcely any domestic accomplishment more graceful in the mistress of a family than that of being able calmly and quietly to carve or serve out the viands placed before her. Generally supported at a dinner-party by a guest of whose knowledge of the art she is ignorant, the well-practiced hostess is independent and free from all anxiety, knowing her own power to distribute round the table both poultry and game, as the case may require. It is at her end of the table that, in a general way, poultry finds its place.

To her husband is entrusted the carving of the joint, the *piece de resistance*, that joint, which all who sit down to table with sharpened appetites, are sure to keep in constant requisition, till the cravings of nature are satisfied. It is, therefore, the more necessary that an early knowledge of the art of serving poultry should be acquired by girls in middle-class life.

"To dance in hall, and carve at board"

have long been considered part of the education of the aristocracy of England.

As to the appliances of the table, these, of course, must be regulated by the circumstances of the host and hostess. It saves much time to place on the cloth at once for each guest a large and small knife and fork, a dessert spoon, and, what is now both cheap and common, a fish-knife, either silver or electro-plated, which is driving its former semi-barbarous bread substitute into the memory of the past. Add to these a wineglass and a tumbler, together with a napkin enclosing the bread—the best way of placing the latter on the table. Mustard, pepper, and salt should be easily accessible, and castors with the usual condiments and sauces, exclusive of those, be on the table. As little time as possible should be lost in removing one course and replacing it by that which is to follow, the human stomach does not like to be trifled with, and, "good digestion to wait on appetite," can only be secured by attention to this rule.

HOW TO CARVE,

ETC., ETC.

SOUP.

Soups take precedence at the table, and are not inaptly called "the vestibule of dinner."

Where they are clear, or the thickening held in solution, as in "Cressi" soups, the principal care should be not to serve out too little—not to fill the plate too full, nor to send it away with scarcely enough to cover its nakedness. Where clear soups have vegetables introduced, as "Julienne," or those denoting their vegetable enrichment, as asparagus, green pea, celery, &c., a little judg-

ment is required to serve out the liquids and solids in due proportion to the number of guests, and according to the season of the year.

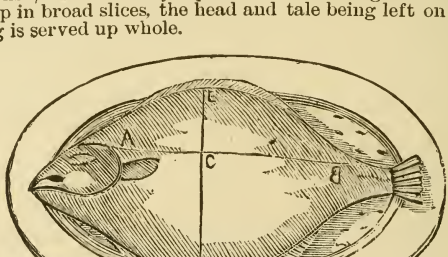
The same rule will apply to fish-soups, such as water-souchy, and to game soups, as hare or partridge soup, as well as to all brown soups, which have meat and forced-meat balls to be served up with the liquid, as ox-tail, mock-turtle, mullaga-tawny, &c., and to white soups, where macaroni, vermicelli, or the breast of chickens are component parts.

In distributing turtle-soup, no practiced hand will send green fat without first asking the question whether it is objectionable. It is too great a delicacy to risk the loss of the portion, and without the most adroit management, it is almost sure to run short before all the guests are served.

FISH.

A few general rules will apply to all kinds of fish. The person who serves it should always remember that the thickest part is usually the choicest, and therefore a careful distributor, before he commences operations will measure with his eye both the number to be served and the size of the fish. All boiled flat fish, if not too small, may be apportioned after the manner of turbot, and all boiled fish of similar shape and dimensions to mackerel, in the same way as that would be served.

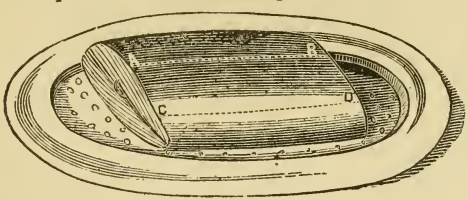
Fried fish, if not already separated when brought to table, is to be cut up in broad slices, the head and tale being left on the dish. Whiting is served up whole.



TURBOT,

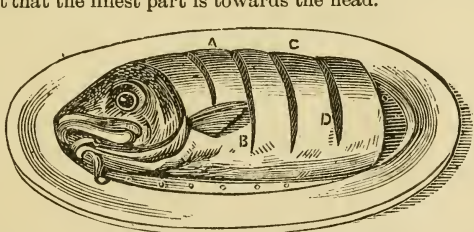
Like all flat fish, is of more delicate flavor in the under side, which is represented in the annexed figure, the whole of which is considered unexceptionable. The finest cuts are those nearest the middle, and the fin is counted a great delicacy. Insert the fish knife just below the head at the point marked A, and carry it down to the point above the tail, marked B. Serve the whole of this upper side in slices from C to D, and from C to E, helping al-

ways a portion of each. Should more be required, lift up the back-bone with the fork, and with the knife or slice separate a portion of the upper side. The flesh on this side is firmer than that of the under side, and for that reason some persons prefer it. Always add a portion of the fin as long as it lasts.



SALMON

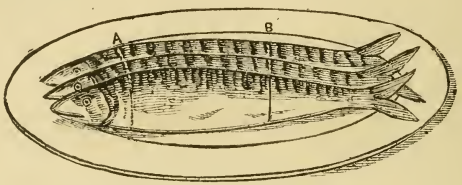
Is seldom served whole, a piece out of the middle, whether crimped or not, being that usually selected. Such a piece as that represented in the engraving is called the prime. Insert the fish-knife or slice at the point marked A; carry it down to that marked B. Make a similar incision from that marked C to D. Then serve in slices, the solid part at least half an inch thick, and about five or six inches in length, and the thin in less proportions, helping each person to a slice of the solid and lean from A to B, and of the soft and fat from C to D. When the fish is very large, like coarse Hamburgh or Dutch salmon, the knife should not be allowed to penetrate to the bone. Should a small salmon be served whole, recollect that the finest part is towards the head.



COD'S HEAD AND SHOULDERS,

If sufficiently boiled, is easily served. The back of the fish should be placed towards the carver, and the first incision is to be made from A to C. Then enter the fish-carver at A, and cut down to the bone in the direction of B, and do the same from C to D, and help from this opening, right and left, one slice of each to every guest, being careful not to make a jagged surface by breaking the flakes. The gelatinous parts about the neck and head are prized, as is also the sound. The palate and tongue, if asked for, must be got at with a spoon. The sound lies in the under part of the fish, and is found by introducing a spoon into

it, between the points B and D. Some cut the fish lengthways when not crimped.

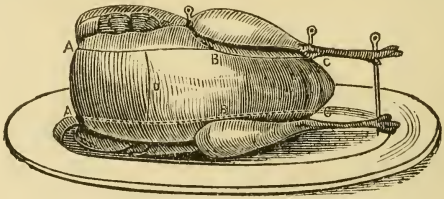


MACKEREL.

Separate the head from the body at A, and then serve an entire side of small fish. Where the fish is large serve only the larger half of a side from A to B, the part nearest the head being the choicest. Do not split the piece from B to the tail, but serve it as one portion. Thus a large mackerel will serve three people. As there are fancies about the roe, it is as well to ask which kind is preferred. The soft roe marks the male, and the hard roe the female fish.

POULTRY

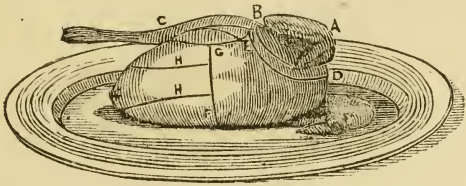
Requires more careful carving than anything else brought to table. As a general rule the white meat is considered the greater delicacy.



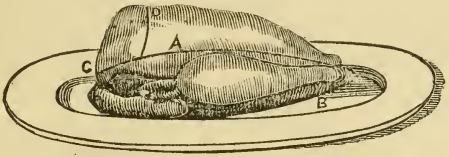
A FOWL ROASTED

May be removed from the dish to the carver's plate; and as fowls are generally served in couples, this does not disarrange the economy of the table. The fork should be placed in the center of the breast, and the knife be carried down from A to C. Then, inserting your knife under the leg at B, cut downwards as far as C, and separate the ligature near that point, when, jerking the leg back, the parts will give way. Next separate the joint at A with the edge of the knife, and carry it through to B, when the wing is easily detached. Separate the other wing and leg in the same way. The merry-thought at D is easily removed by inserting the knife according to the line marked, and bending it back. Then remove the neck-bones E to D by putting the fork through

them, and wrenching them carefully away so as not to break them. The breast must be next separated by cutting right

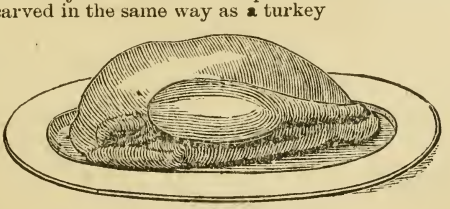


through the ribs to the points C and C. Then turn the fowl back upwards on your plate, as shown in the second figure; cut it up by following the lines G to F and H and H, which will give the side-bones.



A FOWL BOILED

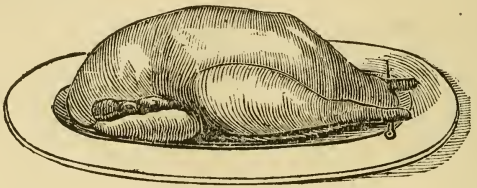
May be cut up in a similar way, though some first remove the wing C to A, and next the leg A to B. By some the side-bones and the liver wing are considered dainties, whilst others prefer the merry-thought D, and the neck-bones. The prime parts, however, of a fowl, either roast or boiled, are generally considered the wings and breast, and where ladies are at table it is customary to apportion these joints to them. Capons and Cochin China fowls may be carved in the same way as a turkey



A TURKEY BOILED

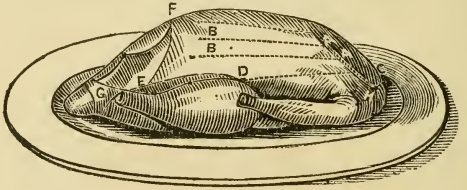
May be served in the same way as a boiled fowl, excepting that, as the breast is the most delicate part, and affords many good slices, these should be cut lengthways, and, with thin portions of the stuffing, be handed round first. Where the bird is large the whole of the breast may be served in such slices, and these a ju-

dicious carver will eke out with slices from the inner part of the thigh, sending to ladies of course, only the former, but to male guests one of each.



A TURKEY ROASTED

May be served in the same way as a roasted fowl, excepting as regards the breast. That should be sent round in the same way as a boiled turkey. In both cases it must be borne in mind that the turkey is a dullard, and though it has a breast-bone, it never had a merry-thought. Where sausages or forced-meat balls are placed on the dish they must be served to every guest.



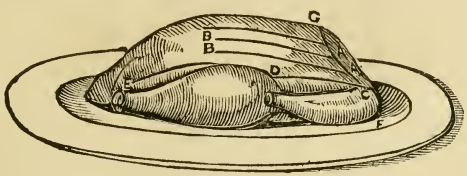
A GOOSE.

The first slices should be cut down to the breast-bone in the direction of A to B, and be helped round as long as they last. Under the apron, which must be cut open at F E G, will be found the stuffing, part of which should be served with each helping.

If more be required the carver must next proceed to take off a leg and wing, by inserting his fork through the small end of the former, pressing it closely to the body, entering his knife at D, and jerking the leg smartly back, when the joint will separate, and it may then be readily cut off in the direction D E. The wing is easily taken off. Place the fork in the small end of the pinion, and pressing it close to the body, separate the joint with the knife at C, and cut off the wing in the direction C D. The fleshy part of the wing and the thigh are the most favorite pieces after the breast. The one should be separated from the pinion and the other from the drumstick. The neck and side-bones should also be served previous to the back or the drumsticks. These latter, with "the miter," or lower part of the back, are generally reserved for "deviling."

A GREEN GOOSE

Should be cut up like a duck, but only about a couple of slices taken from the breast before it is served round in separate joints, the remainder of the breast counting for one. It is customary entirely to dissect the bird before helping anyone at table.

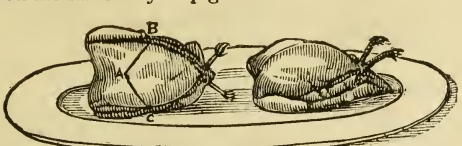


A DUCK

May be carved much in the same way as a goose. The slices from the breast are cut from A to B. The leg is removed by cutting in the direction D to E, and the wing by performing a similar operation from C to D. The merry-thought is between the letters G and F.

DUCKLINGS

Are carved the same way as pigeons.



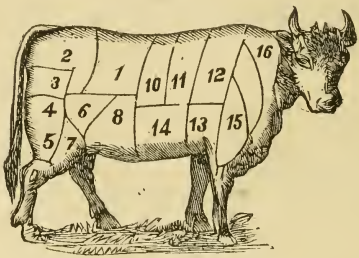
PIGEONS

Are usually carved into four pieces, by inserting the knife at A, cutting in the direction of A B and A C, and then dividing each piece in half. Many persons cut them through the middle lengthways, and serve half the bird to each guest. Half a pigeon is not considered too much to be placed on a plate at once.

JOINTS

ARE always the great staple of any dinner, and therefore no one should be ignorant of the proper mode of carving them. The carver should always remember that hot joints are intended to be eaten hot, and that to cut the slices neither too thick nor too thin is the best way of helping all roast and boiled meats.

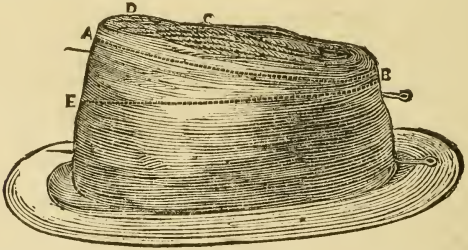
BEEF.



NAMES OF JOINTS.

HIND QUARTER.—1. Sirloin. 2. Rump. 3. Aitch-Bone. 4. Buttock. 5. Mouse-buttock. 6. King piece. 7. Thick flank. 8. Thin flank. 9. Leg. 10. Fore-ribs—5 ribs.

FORE-QUARTER.—11. Mid-ribs.—4 ribs. 12. Chuck—3 ribs. 13. Shoulder or leg-of-mutton piece. 14. Brisket. 15. Cod. 16. Neck or sticking-piece. 17. Shin. 18. Cheek.



AN EDGE-BONE,

AITCH-BONE, HEUCK-BONE, or, H. BONE OF BEEF—for the derivation of the name is lost in the remotest antiquity—is the most favorite joint of salt beef. In all boiled meats the outer slice should be cut off, because the outside, by boiling, becomes hard and dry. In this particular case it is doubly necessary that a thick slice should be taken off in the direction of A to B; for the salting has hardened it no less than the boiling. Then help handsome, smooth, thin slices, giving with each plate a little of the marrowy fat at C, and a little of the solid fat at D. Some recommend the slices to be a trifle thicker at A, and to taper off to B; for the line E to B indicates the prime cuts of the joint. No fluid should be placed in the dish, as the gravy that flows from the meat is all that is required.

A ROUND OF BEEF

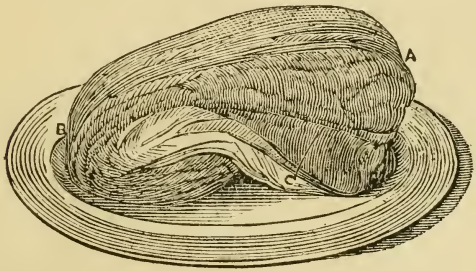
Is carved in the same way as the edge-bone, and the slices must be cut as thin as possible, after having removed a very thick outside slice to another dish.

A BRISKET OF BEEF

Is cut down to the bone the long way, in rather thin slices, as the piece is fat and gristly, and all fat meat requires care not to serve the fat in too solid a mass.

THE NOMBRIL,

Or navel piece, is frequently boiled fresh. The lower part is considered the most delicious, and therefore it is customary to ask whether the upper or lower be preferred.



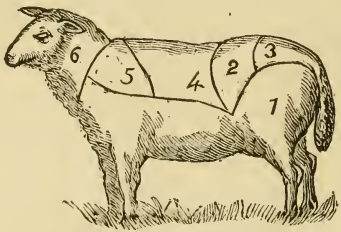
A SIRLOIN OF BEEF

Is said to be a "knightly joint, and worthy of golden spurs." There are two ways of carving it. That which is the more ancient is still the most prevalent, and that is to serve it in long slices from B to A, which of itself apportions the fat to the lean. The other way is to begin in the middle and cut it across. In either case, a piece of the soft marrowy fat should accompany the slice, along with a sufficiency of gravy, which a generous joint will supply to the last. The browned outside should be offered, but not sent without asking. Many prefer the under side. In that case the joint must be turned over, and cross slices cut from thence, beginning at the point C.

RIBS OF BEEF

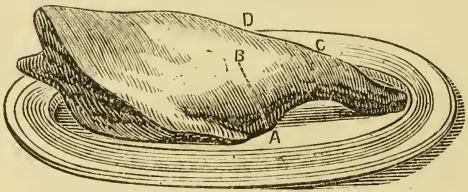
Are carved in the same way as the sirloin, under its first and earlier method, care being taken to commence always at the thinnest part of the meat. When the ribs are boned and the meat rolled like a fillet of veal they are cut up like that joint.

MUTTON OR LAMB.



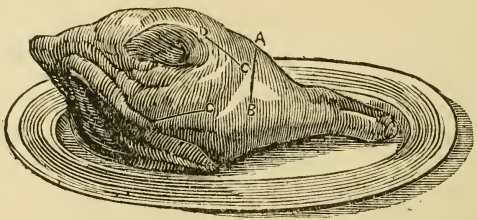
NAMES OF JOINTS.

1. Leg. 2. Loin, best end. 3. Loin, chump end. 4. Neck, best end. 5. Neck, scrag end. 6. Head. 7. Breast. 8. Shoulder. A chine is two necks; a saddle is two loins.



A LEG OF MUTTON, ROASTED.

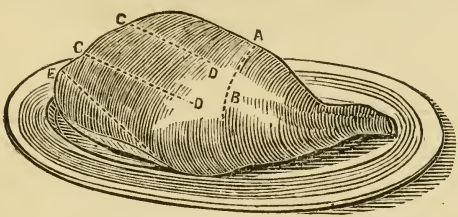
After reversing the dish, by turning the knuckle to the left, make an incision according to the line A B, through the pope's eye, and then cutting slices right and left. The fat is on the thin side nearest the dish, and the cramp-bone, which is now but seldom asked for, though at one time in much demand, can be removed by cutting in a semi-circular direction from D to C.



A LEG OF MUTTON, BOILED,

Is served as represented in the cut. Its most juicy part is about

the middle or thick of the thigh. The shank should lie to the carver's left hand. The first cut should be made from A to B, right through the noix or kernel, called the pope's eye. The fat lies in two directions, marked by the letters D and C C. From each of these a nice slice should be cut, and with the gravy from the meat, helped round with each portion. Some persons serve the other side uppermost, as represented in the roasted leg.

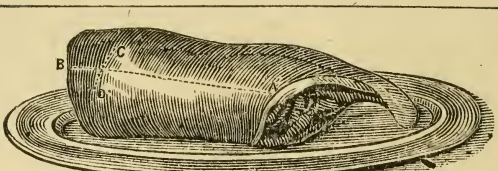


A SHOULDER OF MUTTON,

Which Quin delighted in hot, and George III., or "Farmer George," luxuriated in cold, has many nice cuts, those between C C and D D being the richest, and those at A B the most solid of the lean. The fat should be cut in straight slices as marked at E, and near to it some epicure's slices may be found, as all that part of the animal which is near the back-bone is prized as such. The under side is best cold; but if served hot, the oyster pieces to its right, and the hillock produce the prime slices, which must be cut horizontally.

A HAUNCH OF MUTTON,

Consists of the leg and part of the loin. First pass the knife from the point A in a straight line to the bone to let the gravy flow; or, better still, make an incision at B of about two or three inches long, at right angles with the line C D. That done, cut thin slices from C towards D, but stopping short at the incision B, right and left. The fat must also be cut in thin slices: and the gravy, which will collect in a copious pool at the incision B, must be served round with the meat. The dish should be so placed as to enable the carver to cut the slices towards himself.

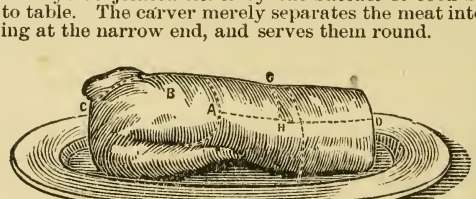


A SADDLE OF MUTTON

Which is always a favorite joint, consists of two loins. Make an incision either at C or D, stopping just short of the back-bone. Then cut up one side before you begin upon the other, and let the slices be of moderate thickness from A to B, serving with each a thin slice of fat, cut lengthways from the outer edge of the lower sides. Having finished one side, pursue a similar line of operations with the other. Help to each guest some of the gravy out of the meat, which will collect at the incisions C and D. The under part is seldom served hot, yet it contains some very delicate eating.

A LOIN OF MUTTON

Should always be jointed either by the butcher or cook before it is sent to table. The carver merely separates the meat into chops, beginning at the narrow end, and serves them round.



A FORE-QUARTER OF LAMB

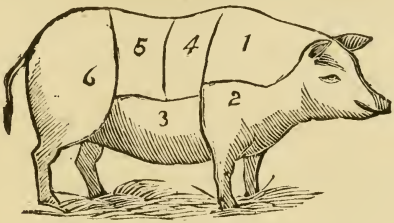
Requires a careful carver to do it justice. Sometimes he will have first to separate the shoulder from the ribs. To do this it will be necessary to insert the fork towards the knuckle, and to cut with the knife held horizontally, from C round B to A, and then to raise the fork, cutting through the meat of the flap, so as not to leave the ribs too bare. In a well regulated family, however, all this trouble is spared the carver—the cook having seen to the separation before hand—and he has only to lift the shoulder with the fork, and to place it on a separate dish. He must then separate the brisket from the ribs (if not already done), by cutting straight across from A to D. To a novice this is no easy matter; but practice soon makes perfect. The more solid meat lies to the right of the line E F, and the brisket is to be served in squares, as shown at G H E. A portion of each is usually placed on the plate.

Where that practice does not prevail the choice is ribs, brisket, or shoulder; the latter being carved like a shoulder of mutton.

LEG OF LAMB AND LOIN OF LAMB

Are carved exactly as mutton, but the fat being more delicate, it is handed round with a more liberal hand.

PORK.

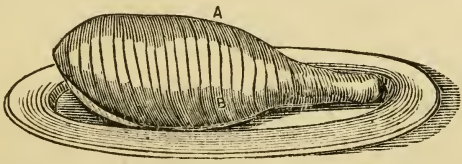


NAMES OF JOINTS.

1. The spare rib. 2. The hand. 3. The belly or spring. 4. Fore-loin. 5. Hind-loin. 6. Leg. 7. Head.

A ROAST PIG.

To eat this with a proper zest, a copy of Elia's Essays should be at the carver's right hand; for without it he will forget half the dainties which Charles the inimitable has pointed out as nestling about the ribs and neck, and ears and jaw of the little favorite. It is usually cut up before it is sent to table, and the cook should be told to divide the head. The carver must then remove the brains and mix them with the gravy and stuffing. The pig is cut asunder from the shoulder to the tail, right down the *center* of the back, and subdivided into squares. Help each, with its proper adjunct of gravy and stuffing, with a liberal hand; for to help roast pig niggardly was deemed a gross insult by Doctor Parr, and others may have the like notion. The ribs are still esteemed by some the best eating, though by others the neck is preferred. The ear and jaw are considered delicacies; but the fact is the whole is good eating, and the carver has only to see that it is served as hot as possible.



A LEG OF PORK

Should be cut across as marked in the direction of A to B. If

boiled, the slices are served thinner than when roasted. In the latter case the carver is somewhat regulated by the incisions made in the skin before roasting, and which are known as "crackling," to lovers of the dish. Having made incisions from A to B, the cuts are made right and left alternately. The seasoning will be found under the skin, to the left of A; but many persons send the seasoning in the dish.

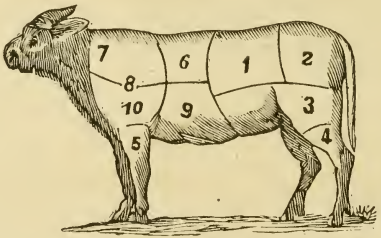
A LOIN OF PORK

Is carved as a loin of mutton, placing one chop upon each plate.

A HAND OF PORK

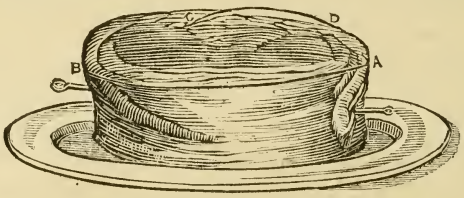
May be carved by cutting slices across, as in a shoulder of mutton, and also from off the blade-bone.

VEAL.



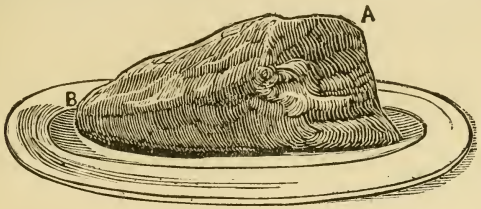
NAMES OF JOINTS.

1. Loin, best end. 2. Loin, chump end. 3. Fillet. 4. Hind-knuckle. 5. Fore-knuckle. 6. Neck, best end. 7. Neck, scrag end. 8. Blade-bone. 9. Breast, best end. 10. Breast, brisket end.



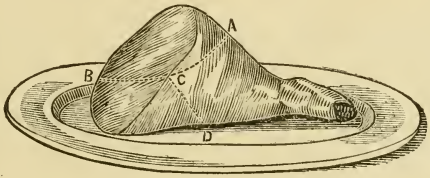
A FILLET OF VEAL

Is cut in the same way as a round of beef; but as the browned outside is considered a choice part, it should be ascertained whether outside or inside be preferred. The horizontal slices should be delicately cut, and to everyone a portion of the stuffing placed at C D shoud be served, with a little fat, which will be found between A and D.



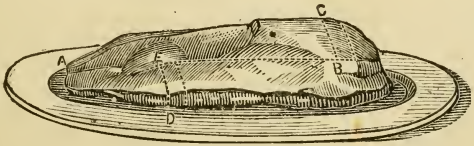
A LOIN OF VEAL

May be cut up either into single chops, dividing the meat into handsome slices, and serving the bone with one, or, if the joint chosen be the chump end, in long slices, from B to A. The end nearest B contains the more solid meat. The fat and kidney are underneath. The latter is considered the epicure's portion, and should not be forgotten.



A KNUCKLE OF VEAL,

"Whether you buy it or steal it," is not a dish to be despised and reserved only for the sick-room. As a veal soup it is in great favor in Scotland, and though not popular as a joint, there are not wanting those with whom it is a great favorite. It requires a little practice to carve a knuckle of veal neatly, and with satisfaction to one's self. It must be cut in the direction of B to A, and then divide the bones from C to D. The fat is considered a delicacy. It will be found close to B.



A BREAST OF VEAL

Consists of gristles and ribs, and it is necessary to separate them by cutting from A to B. Then divide the ribs by following the

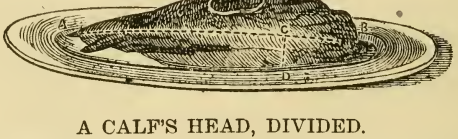
line indicated by C B. The sweetbread at E should be served round with each plate. The gristles will be found at D. The choice is gristles or ribs.

A GIGOT, OR GIGETT OF VEAL

Is either cut in horizontal slices, or as a leg of mutton, beginning near to the broad end.

A SHOULDER OF VEAL

Is served like a shoulder of mutton. Neither the gigot nor shoulder is much prized unless the veal be small, when they are delicate eating.



A CALF'S HEAD, DIVIDED.

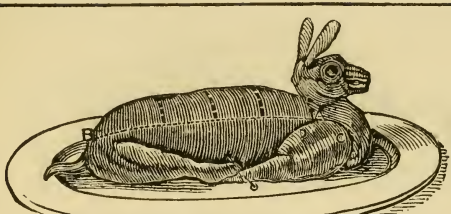
In serving this favorite dish take care to press the knife to the bone, cutting slices from A to B. The root of the tongue is indicated by the line C D, and should be served round to those that like it. There is some delicate meat under the jaw-bone. The brains and tongue are placed on a separate dish, but care should be taken to serve some to each guest. Do this also with the palate, seated under the head, which should be therefore cut in small pieces before you begin to help round. The eye, which some fancy, should be divided.

GAME

Requires more attention than poultry; because, being in the first place less plentiful, a skillful carver must make the most of what is placed before him; and in the second place, as the cold birds come in well at the breakfast and the lunch-table, it is often as well not to cut off more than is required for the immediate occasion.

A HAUNCH OF VENISON

Is cut just like a haunch of mutton. The incision at A is made to allow the gravy to flow. Some persons cut through from C to D, and help their slices alternately from right to left. The fat, which is highly prized, will be found chiefly on the left side. When it is the haunch of a hunted buck or doe, make the incision at B, as recommended in a haunch of mutton. Recollect that, unless venison be fat, it is but mocking the appetite of your guests to place it before them, and that everybody likes venison fat. Buck venison is in greatest perfection from Midsummer to Michaelmas, and Doe venison from November to January. The "Alderman's walk," the primest part of the joint, is in the side where the fat abounds.



A HARE

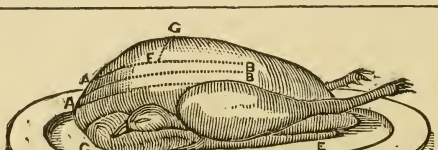
Is usually sent to table on her haunches. The best way is to insert the knife at A, and run it along to B, repeating the same operation both sides of the hare. If the hare be large, a couple of long slices may first be taken from either side. If so, the legs must next be taken off and then separate the shoulders at the circular line C A D. The back is now to be cut through in three or four pieces as marked, going right through the spine. The legs should be divided into two. Divide also the head by inserting the point of the knife at the top, and cut it through in the direction of the nose. Some persons first separate the upper from the under jaw. The ears should be cut off close to the roots. The head, brains, and ears, are by some considered dainty morsels. It is becoming the fashion to have hares boned before roasting, which saves the carver an immensity of trouble. No old hare should be roasted, unless previously boned; let it be jugged; this is the best way of serving it, for it requires great experience to serve an old hare. It is customary in some localities to cut up the whole before any is served. The stuffing, to be sent with every plate, will be found inside.

A RABBIT ROASTED

Is served in the same way as a hare; but, being of less dimensions, the back is cut in fewer pieces. The head is not sent unless it is asked for. It is always a wild rabbit that is roasted. It is either stuffed as a hare, or, when young, merely served with its own liver sauce.

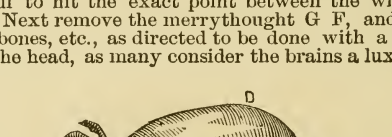
A RABBIT BOILED

May be cut in the same way as its roasted brother. The middle piece of the back is the epicure's choice. Ostend rabbits are best boiled or curried. The remains of either roast or boiled rabbits or game may be formed into quenelles, or forced-meat rissoles—a favorite side dish.



A PHEASANT

Is carved partly like a duck and partly like a fowl. The breast should be cut up in slices from A to B, fixing first the fork in its center. Then take off the legs at D E, and the wings at C D, being careful to hit the exact point between the wing and the neckbone. Next remove the merrythought G F, and the neck-bones, side-bones, etc., as directed to be done with a roast fowl. Split open the head, as many consider the brains a luxury.



A PARTRIDGE

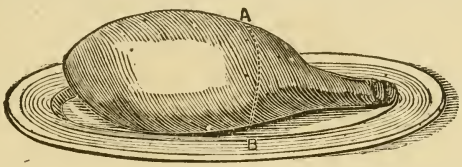
Is carved in the same way as a fowl. The breast, wings, and merrythought are the best pickings. The wing, marked A, and the leg, marked B, are taken off at the dotted line. The merry-thought is at the point C D, and the split head must be sent if asked for. Where the guests are few a partridge is sometimes only divided into two, which is called "the bachelor fashion."

GROUSE

Are carved like partridges; and woodcocks, snipes, quails, field-fare, and other similar birds, either in the same way when there is a scarcity at the table, or if plentiful, they are merely cut in halves. Upon this point the carver must exercise his own dis-cretion.

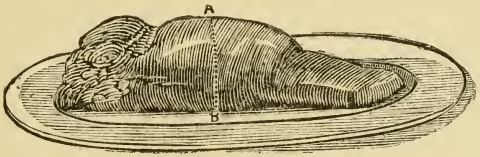
HAM AND TONGUE

Are concomitants to so many of the good things brought to the festive board, that they may well claim a parting word from us,



A HAM

Should be cut deliciously thin, not foolishly so. The most prevalent way is to begin cutting your slices at the line indicated by A B, and proceed towards the thick end. That contains all the prime cuts. The knuckle is best dried and grated. A baked ham eats shorter than a boiled one, and the slices may be cut much thinner. Mutton hams are served in the same way as ham.



A TONGUE

Is best in the thickest part, and therefore the proper way is to cut it nearly through at the line A B. Then serve it in thin slices right and left, helping fat to those who ask for it from the under side. A stewed tongue makes a savory dish, and is generally served in its own sauce, with small mushrooms or onions. The slices are cut from the root to the tip, lengthways.

These instructions will aid the careful housewife to profit more fully by our *Economical Cookery and Hints on Domestic Management.* The art of carving not only enables us to place food more temptingly before our guests, but it also prevents waste, and many a dish of relishing food, though consisting but of pickings, may appear with all propriety at a subsequent supper or dinner, either cold or in another shape, provided it has met with fair treatment on its first appearance. If a joint of meat be not hacked and mangled, even though nothing but the bone remain, garnished with a few sprigs of parsley, it will form a sightly dish, and particularly fragments of poultry and game, nicely arranged with similar garnishing, make a tasty supper dish.

Norman L. Munro, Pub.

HOW TO BREW;

—FROM—

A BARREL OF BEER

—TO—

A BOWL OF BISHOP.

One sip of this
Will bathe the drooping spirits in delight
Beyond the bliss of dreams. Be wise, and taste.
—MILTON.

NEW YORK:
NORMAN L. MUNRO, PUBLISHER,
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HOW TO BREW;

FROM

A BARREL OF BEER TO A BOWL OF BISHOP.

INTRODUCTION.

BEER has been for many ages a staple commodity with the English. Its origin is generally considered to have been derived from Egypt, and it may be considered as the wine of the northern countries. The British Poets, from Chaucer downwards, have sung its praises; and the good old "nut brown ale" has long been the boast of our forefathers. The "moist and corny ale" of Chaucer's time would be a queer medley to our modern palates, being composed of a decoction of malt and oats, bittered by broom, bay berries, or ivy berries, and it is stated that the ale was almost certain to get eager before it got ripe. Hollinshed mentions that it was the custom to "eke" out the malt with a liberal admixture of unmalted oats, and it appears that an inferior sort of oat-ale was much used in families.

In 1428, the British Parliament was petitioned against the use of hops as a wicked weed; and they were first used in the brewing of malt liquors in 1528.

About the time of Shakspere, hops began to be generally used in the brewing of beer, and were probably a foreign importation from the vicinity of the Pomeranian Hanse Towns, where they were grown as early as the thirteenth century, and beer formed one of the staple articles of export of these communities. Stow mentions, that in the year 1585, there were about twenty-six brewers in the city, suburbs, and Westminster, whereof the one-half were strangers and the other half English; so that it is not unlikely the knowledge of hops, with their use, was first introduced into England by those strangers who were capable of teaching the method of using them. The term "beer" is said to have come with the hops to distinguish the liquid brewed from it from the old-fashioned ale.

About the time of Elizabeth beer began to rise in the estimation of the public, and the increase of the alehouses alarmed the authorities and the Lord Mayor, who aided by the magistrates of Lambeth and Southwark, suppressed above two hundred of them within their jurisdiction.

In the *Annual Register* for 1760 we have the following account of the beer trade:—"In the beginning of the reign of William,

brown ale, which was a heavy, sweet liquor, was sold for sixteen shillings the barrel, and small beer for six shillings the barrel, which the customers paid for in ready money, and fetched from the brewery themselves.

"A change came over the character of London beer in the reign of Queen Anne, owing to two different causes: the duty imposed upon malt and hops, and taxes on account of the war with France, on the one hand, and the more frequent residence of the gentry in London on the other. The duty on malt exceeding that on hops, the brewers endeavored at a liquor in which more of the latter should be used. The people, not easily weaned from the sweet clammy drink to which they had been accustomed, drank ale mixed with the new-fashioned bitter beer, which they got from the victualler. This is the earliest trace our antiquarian searches have enabled us to detect of the very palatable beverage 'half and half.' The gentry introduced the pale ale, and pale small beer, which prevailed in the country; and either engaged some of their friends or some of the London trade to brew their liquors for them. The pale beers being originally intended for a more affluent and luxurious class, the brewers who engaged in this new branch of business paid more attention to the condition in which it was delivered, increased their store of casks, and kept them in better order. The pale ale was more expensive than the London beers; its price was thirty shillings a barrel, whilst the brown ale was selling at nineteen shillings and twenty shillings, and the bitter beer at twenty-two shillings a barrel. But the spreading of a taste for the new drink, and the establishment of 'pale ale-houses,' stimulated the brown beer trade to produce a better article than they had hitherto made They began to hop their mild beer more; and the publicans started three, four, and sometimes six butts at a time; but so little idea had the brewer or his customer of being at the charge of large stocks of beer, that it gave room to a set of moneyed people to make a trade by buying these beers from the brewers, keeping them some time, and selling them, when stale, to publicans for twenty-five shillings or twenty-six shillings a butt. Our tastes but slowly alter or reform: some drank mild beer and stale; others, what was then called three threads, at threepence a quart; but many used all stale, at fourpence a quart."

The malt liquors usually drank in London about this time by the poorer classes were ale, beer, and twopenny; and it was customary for the drinkers of beer to call for a pint or a tankard of three threads, meaning a third of each—ale, beer, and twopenny; and for this the publican had the trouble to go to three casks, and turn three taps for a pint of liquor. To avoid this inconvenience and waste, a brewer of the name of Harwood conceived the idea of making a liquor which should partake of the same united flavor, ale, beer, and twopenny. He did so, by calling it "entire," or "entire butt," meaning that it was drawn from one cask or butt; and as it was a very hearty and nourishing beverage, it soon gained favor with the porters and laboring people.

The brewers, however, conceived the idea that there was a medium to be found preferable to any of these extremes; which was,

that beer well brewed, from being kept its proper time, becoming mellow—that is, neither new nor stale—would recommend itself to the public. This they ventured to sell at twenty-three shillings a barrel, that victuallers might retail it at threepence a quart. Though it was slow at first in making its way, yet, as it certainly was right, in the end the experiment succeeded beyond expectation. Hence the origin of porter; but as yet it was far from the perfection in which we have since had it; and for many years it was an established maxim in the trade, that porter could not be made fine or bright, and four or five months were deemed the age when it should be drunk. The improvement of brightness has, however, since been added, by means of more age, better malt, better hops, and the use of isinglass.

This London beer or porter is the veritable brown stout; and such has been the general prevailing taste for, and appreciation of, this porter, that it may now be obtained in almost every nation in the four quarters of the globe. Bitter pale ales are in great request in the East and West Indies, and now form an important article of export from England.

The difference between the color of ales and porter is owing to the color of the malt used in brewing them. Ale malt is dried at a low heat, and consequently is of a pale color; whilst porter malt is dried with a high temperature, and therefore acquires a brown color in proportion to the heat used. This incipient charring develops a peculiar and agreeable bitter taste, which is communicated to the beer along with the dark color.

Good and unadulterated ale or beer is a most healthy and nutritious beverage. To be good, the fermentation should be so conducted as to retain the greatest possible portion of gluten or nutritive matter. The strength of the beer, or the alcohol it may contain, is but a secondary consideration.

To secure the greatest portion of nutriment possible in beer, it is necessary that the fermentation should be checked as soon as it has sufficiently fermented to make it palatable for drinking. If the fermentation be permitted to proceed to its greatest length, as is the case in distilleries, it would then be but little heavier than water, containing little or no nutritious matter, and much alcohol, which is not required in good beer, but only sufficient to give it briskness and pungency. The properties remaining in it not changed will give fulness to the beer, and leave sufficient for it to ripen on without becoming sour.

Having considered what the qualities of good beer should be, we will now proceed with the method of

BREWING.

The art of brewing is simple, and easily understood, cleanliness and attention being the principal points to be considered. It consists of five operations, namely, mashing, boiling, cooling, fermenting, and cleansing.

The first process is simple to obtain an infusion of the malt. In the second, this infusion of malt is further impregnated with the flavor of the hops in the boiling, which is requisite for the pre-

servation of the beer. In the third, this decoction or infusion is cooled down to the necessary heat for fermentation, which is excited with yeast, and which fills it with carbonic gas, giving to the liquor that pungent taste for which it is esteemed. After this it is fined, or cleansed, to render it fit for drinking.

THE BREWERY.

Any shed or place will do for a brewhouse, provided it is well covered in, and sufficiently high and expansive to admit or exclude the air just as the heat of the atmosphere requires. The bottom should be paved with stone or brick, to admit of its being well-cleansed. The brewhouse should be as distant as possible from drains or places emitting putrid smells.

BREWING UTENSILS.

These utensils in a small way (say for a hogshead, or 54 gallons of beer) will consist of a copper capable of containing about seventy gallons; and if the brick edge at the top is made sloping, and covered with lead, it will prevent any waste of the wort in the boiling.

A mash tub, with a false bottom about three inches above the other bottom, bored full of small holes, to prevent the malt stopping up the hole of the faucet. In many cases, for the sake of economy, an old worn-out birch-broom is cleaned and fastened before the hole of the faucet; and others again have two pieces of wood nailed together, and bored full of holes, which is fitted to the side of the tub, so as to cover the hole of the faucet. Any of these contrivances is to prevent the malt or grains from flowing out with the wort, which would spoil its transparency. The tub must be sufficiently large to hold ten or twelve bushels of malt, with plenty of room for mashing or stirring.

An underback, to receive the wort from the mashing-tub.

An oar, or *rudder*, to stir up the malt in the mash-tub.

Two or three *coolers*. These should be broad and flat, that the wort may cool quickly; for if the wort is too long cooling, it is likely to become sour in the coolers. These should also be raised a little at one end, that the wort may be run off at the lowest end without being disturbed or shaken—that the sediment which always falls down may not be again mixed with the wort.

A fermenting tun. The mash-tub, when emptied of the grains, will also serve for this purpose.

Casks, and *oak stands*, for the casks and tubs to be placed on. The whole of these articles should be of a suitable size with the copper, which the cooper will always regulate, or in proportion to the quantity intended to be brewed; but there are few families who brew less than a hogshead of beer at a time. There are other minor articles required, which are enumerated under the head of *Tools requisite for the Cellar*.

PREPARATION FOR BREWING.

The day before the operation of brewing commences, all the

utensils, such as the casks, mash-tub, fermenting tun, coolers—in fact, everything which will be required, must be thoroughly cleansed. For this purpose the copper should be filled with water, the fire lighted, and the water boiled. If due care has been taken to put the things away in a clean state after being used, they will only require to be well scrubbed and scalded, when they will be perfectly sweet and fit for use. Should they have been suffered by neglect to become mouldy on the inside, be particularly careful not to use them till they have been cleaned and scraped by a cooper, who will unhead the casks for this purpose. New casks should be washed thoroughly with cold water, and a pint of hot brine water should be afterwards thrown into the cask (about three-quarters of a pound of salt being sufficient for a barrel, or thirty-six gallon cask); then bung it up and shake it well on all sides. Empty the cask and allow it to cool, having ready about a quart of fermenting wort, which should be afterwards poured into the cask; then bung it, shake it, and allow it to stand until the wort is cold.

For casks, tubs, or coolers that are sour, put some water in them, and throw a knob or two of unslacked lime into each; bung the casks tight, and let them soak some time, turning them about frequently. The tubs or coolers should have the lime and water well stirred about in them. Turn this out, scald and scrub them with hot water until perfectly clean. Some small pebbles put into the casks will very much accelerate the cleansing of them.

In scalding and cleansing casks the bung should be taken out occasionally, whilst rolling or agitating the hot water in them, to let the vapor escape.

These operations being finished, the copper must be cleansed, and filled with water for the next day's brewing.

MALT.

According to the quality of the barley from which it is made, so the malt varies in quality. There are four sorts of malt; namely, pale, amber, brown, and blown; the last two are used for brewing porter. The color depends on the length of time, and the degree of heat, used in the drying of it. Pale and amber malt are the best for domestic brewing, as they contain the largest amount of saccharine matter. The best is the cheapest, although it may cost a little more money. The average quantity required for a hogshead is about four and a half bushels.

Malt is chosen by its sweet smell, mellow taste, round body, and thin skin. When good, a bushel should weigh about 45 lbs.; the grains should be fine, bite soft between the teeth, and be full of flour. Bad malt will bite hard and steely, and will also sink in water the same as barley which is not malted; whereas, barley which is well malted will swim after it is wetted all over; and if the malt is made from bad barley it will be deficient in weight. Malsters are frequently in the habit of mixing a portion of raw barley with malt made from inferior barley, to make up the deficiency in weight.

It is always best to have the malt from the malster's and grind

it at home, as it measures more after being ground than it did in the grain. Before grinding, see that the mill is free from dust and cobwebs, and set so as to crush the grain without grinding it to powder; for it is better to have some small grains pass through untouched than to have the whole ground too small, which would cause it to cake together in the mash, and prevent the extraction of the goodness.

The malt should also be ground or crushed for four or five days, or a week, before it is wanted, which will give it time to mellow, whereby it will render its properties more freely to the water.

HOPS.

There is a great variety of hops grown, and each of them produces a different flavor in the beer, which is more distinguishable when new than after it has acquired age.

In the western part of England, the Farnham hops are preferred by those who brew their own beer; in the eastern parts, the Kent and Sussex hops are preferred; and the Sussex, mixed with the Worcester, are used by the inhabitants of the north-western parts of England for their keeping-beer, and also for ale.

Good hops should be of a color between green and yellow, have a clammy feel when rubbed between the hands, with plenty of yellow flour or farina about them. The seeds should not be too large or hard, and the hops should smell lively and agreeable.

WATER.

Particular attention must be paid to the quality of the water used for brewing. That water which will make a good lather with soap, and is the best for washing, should be chosen. River or pond water, where there is a running stream having a gravelly bottom, is the best, unless polluted by the melting of snow, or by water from clay or ploughed lands. Snow and hard water will require a greater proportion of malt than soft water, and consequently is not so good for brewing.

Well or spring water, which decomposes or curdles soap, is not so good for brewing as soft water; but there is a great difference in these waters, some being harder than others. If there is no alternative but that of using spring, or hard water, let it be pumped up, exposed to the sun in tubs or coolers for several days before it is required for use, and a little powdered chalk thrown in, stirring it frequently.

Rain water should be chosen next to river water. The softer the water, the greater solvent it is of vegetable matter, thereby dissolving more readily and copiously the extractive matter of the malt.

MASHING.

The purpose of mashing is to convert as much of the flour of the malt as possible into sugar, so that the extract drawn from it may contain the greatest amount of saccharine matter which it is capable of giving. To accomplish this perfectly will depend upon

many contingencies—the heat of the water used in mashing, its quality, whether hard or soft, the most perfect mixing of the malt with the water, and the time of their remaining together. High-dried malt does not produce so much saccharine matter as pale malt.

On the proper temperature of the liquor used will depend the goodness, flavor, and clearness of the extract drawn. When too high, or near the boiling point, the flour of the malt will be set, forming a kind of paste or starch, and the extract obtained will be little better than water. The surface of the grains after the mashing process is concluded will be covered with specks of white meal. The same appearance also shows itself when unmalted corn has been mixed with the malt.

If the temperature be too low, the wort will be poor and devoid of strength, because the heat of the water is not sufficient to convert the flour of the malt into sugar, or to extract the saccharine matter from it.

For pale malt the heat of the water must be higher than for brown, and so much the lower in proportion as the malt is more brown. Thus, for the pale malt, the heat of the water for the first mash should be 178 degrees; for the second, 182. Pale and amber mixed, or pale malt approaching to amber, 172 degrees for the first mash; second, 178. All amber, the first 170 degrees; second, 176. For very brown, or brown malt, such as is used for porter, 154 degrees for the first; second, 164. When hard water is used, the heat in each case should be about two degrees less. An equal portion of pale, amber and brown, or half pale and half brown—first heat, 160 degrees; second, 166.

The time for the standing of the mash is from an hour and a half to two hours. In the summer months the mash should not stand so long by a quarter of an hour as it does in the winter.

Heat the water in the copper to the required degree by Fahrenheit's thermometer, an indispensable instrument in the process of brewing; but in taking the heat in the copper, if it is too hot, add cold liquor to bring it to the desired degree; but be careful to stir the hot and cold well together and mix it intimately, because the cold water, being heavier than the hot, sinks to the bottom.

The heat of the water being now reduced to the proper degree in the tun, the malt must be stirred in gradually. It is best for one person to throw it in, whilst another mixes it well and thoroughly by means of the *oar*, so that there may be no lumps or clots of malt left in it. The remainder of the water should be added by degrees, as the mash becomes too stiff to stir, until the whole is used. Reserve about half a bushel of the malt to throw over the top when the mashing is finished. Cover the top of the tun with malt-sacks or cloths, to keep in the heat, and let it stand the required time.

Turn the tap partially, to allow the wort to run out slowly, and draw off some in a pail or bucket. As the first running will not be clear, it must be put gently back into the tun; and if the second running is not sufficiently clear, turn the tap again, and let it remain a few minutes before drawing it off; then turn the tap partially as before, and draw it off into the *underback*, which must

be placed underneath to receive it. As the wort runs out more slowly, the tap must be turned more fully, until the whole is nearly run out, and the bed of the grains looks dry; then turn the tap to prevent any more running off.

While the mash is standing, the copper should be again filled with water, and heated to the required degree for the second mash; this should be ready by the time the first wort is drawn off; then with a bowl, or lade pail, pour over the top of the grains as gently as possible about half as much water as for the first; cover the mash-tun, let it remain about ten minutes or a quarter of an hour, and draw it off as before, pouring back the first running until it is fine.

The wort from the first mashing is always the best and richest in saccharine or sweet matter. The proportion of wort to be obtained from each bushel of malt depends entirely on the proposed strength of the liquor required. To ale or beer of a superior kind the produce only of the first mashing should be used. For ordinary or usual drinking ale, take the produce of the first and second mashings, mix it well, and ascertain the gravity by a saccharometer—a very useful instrument, which can be obtained, with a table for ascertaining the true gravity at different degrees of heat. The usual limits for ale or beer is from 50 to 60 degrees, and for very strong ale from 90 to 120 pounds per barrel. That made at the first gravity will be a brisk, lively, and sparkling drink; but the last will be more heavy and glutinous, and can only be imperfectly fermented.

BOILING, COOLING, AND FERMENTING.

As soon as the water is taken from the copper for the table-beer, damp the fire with ashes or cinders, and put in the wort. For every bushel of malt used, allow one pound of hops, previously soaked in water taken from the first mash at 160 degrees of heat; add one-half of them at first, and the other half after the wort has boiled half an hour. Two pounds of hops by this method are considered to be equal to three pounds used in the ordinary way. The water in which they are steeped is strained off and put into the tun instead of the copper, which preserves the flavor of the hops. Let the wort boil as briskly as possible, for the quicker it is boiled the sooner it will break. Try it occasionally in a glass and see if it has separated into large flakes; if it has not, boil it a little longer; when nearly ready, it will appear to be broken into fine particles. The extremes of under and over-boiling must be avoided, for when over-boiled it is with difficulty fined again in the casks. When the wort is ready, damp the fire, and draw it off into the coolers, keeping the hops well stirred to prevent their being burnt to the bottom; strain it through a hair-sieve to take off the hops. The coolers should be as shallow as possible, that the wort may not be too long in cooling, or it may chance to get sour, and should be of the same depth in each, that it may cool equally. When the first wort is drawn off, return the hops again into the boiler, with the wort for the table-beer, and let it boil quickly for one hour and a half; and if one pound of coarse sugar or molasses

and one ounce of salt, be added to every ten gallons of wort in the boiling, it will be much improved. When the wort has been cooled down to 75 or 80 degrees of heat by the thermometer (this will depend on the state of the atmosphere, for when the weather is warm it should be cooler), draw it off into the fermenting tun, without disturbing the sediment at the bottom, which gives the ale or beer a disagreeable taste. This is always observed by the Scotch brewers, but others consider that it feeds the beer (and always use it), which it certainlydoes: for whether it is the oleaginous quality of the hops, or the gluten extracted from the malt, which is precipitated by the boiling, it cannot be of any injury to the wort. If it is the first, it is of essential service to give the full flavor of the hops. In each case it will be thrown off in the working.

Three pints of good white fresh yeast will be about the quantity required to work a hogshead of beer; but in larger brewings this will depend on the quantity there is in a body, the gravity, and heat of the atmosphere—thus, the lower the gravity, the greater the bulk, and the warmer the weather, the less yeast must be used in proportion to work it, and *vice versa*. Three pints being sufficient for a hogshead, a gallon will work four or five hogsheads in a body of the same gravity. First mix the yeast with a gallon or two of the wort, and a handful or two of bean or wheat flour in the fermenting tun; when the fermentations is brisk, pour over another portion, and as soon as the wort is at the proper degree of temperature run into the tun, reserving out some of the ferment, to feed the beer as occasion may require. When it becomes languid, or if there is sufficient yeast in, it may then be left out altogether.

The fermentation should be gradual at first; for if it goes on too quickly the beer is likely to become foxed—that is to have a rank and disagreeable taste. The next morning, the beer should have a thin white creamy head; then with a bowl or lade-pail, well rouse and mix it together. If, however, the fermentation has not been favorable, add some of the ferment; and if rather cold, wrap some sacks or old carpet round the tun, and place some sacks over the top; also keep the door and windows closed. Or take a clean cask (the size according to the quantity of the gyle, or brewing), and fill it full of boiling liquor; bung it close, and put in the tun. In the evening rouse the head well in again; the next morning the beer should have what is termed a cauliflower-head; remove with the skimmer any patches of dark-brown yeast, and mix it well up together again. After the yeast has risen to the top, it will form a thick yeasty appearance, which should be skimmed off as soon as it is inclined to fall. A portion should then be taken out, tried with the saccharometer, and noted. If not sufficiently fermented, it should be tried every two hours until it is so, and the head may be skimmed off at the same time. When sufficiently reduced, cleanse it into the casks.

In cleansing ale or beer, the yeast should be skimmed from the top, and the liquor drawn off gently, so as not to disturb the bottoms. The casks should be plugged a little on one side, that the yeast may work and discharge itself at the bung-hole. A tub or pan must be placed underneath to receive the yeast as it works

over. The greatest attention should be paid to the filling up of the casks with the wort that is left, which should be done every half hour at first, as the working becomes more slow, every three or four hours, that the yeast may continue to discharge itself, otherwise it will fall to the bottom, and render the beer harsh and unpleasant, and liable to be excited on every change of the weather; but by attending to these precautions, this will be avoided, and the working of the beer will be sooner over.

When the yeast has ceased to discharge itself, plug the casks upright, mix a pound of the best hops with old ale or beer, and scald them in it over the fire. If the ale or beer is required to be drunk soon, this mixture should be added warm, otherwise, add it when cold. Mix it well into the cask by means of a long stick, and bung the cask close; make a spile-hole near the bung, and put in a spile rather loosely at first, and after two or three days knock it in firmly.

Small beer will require rather more yeast to work it than strong beer or ale. A portion of the wort at the temperature of 85 degrees should be mixed at first with the yeast. When the fomentation has commenced, the rest of the wort may be run into the tun at the heat of 75 degrees. It will not work so strongly as ale, and may be casked the next day. Attend to the filling of the cask as directed for ale. In about two days the fermentation will have subsided, and the cask should then be bunged close.

The fermentation will always show whether the degrees of heat have been well taken, and the extract well made. If too high, the air-bladders on the head will be about as large as a crown piece. If too low, there will be few or no bladders, or very small ones; but when well taken they will be in size between a quarter of a dollar and a ten-cent piece.

The proportions of hops used for beer should be in accordance with the time it is to be kept. If for immediate use, three pounds will be sufficient for a coomb of malt. From one to two years, four pounds; old beer, five or six pounds. The same if the wort is very rich; or in proportion to its gravity use more hops, because beer or ale made from rich wort is always intended for long keeping.

In general, four or five pounds of hops per coomb are used for ales; but for porter, five to six pounds, and for bitter ale, about eight or ten pounds; but in all cases care should be taken that the hops are of the best quality. Brewers are not permitted to use any other bitter than hops for their ale; but the private brewer will find about a quarter of a pound of the raspings of quassia equivalent to six pounds of hops for preserving ale and imparting a pleasant bitter.

Beer brewed for immediate use may be made from all pale malt, as it is more readily fermented than that from the browner sorts. It will not keep so well, and may be brewed almost in the hottest weather, as it need not be cooled below 70 or 75 degrees.

A mixture of pale and amber malt should always be used for keeping-beer, and the wort cooled down to 60 or 70 degrees before it is put into a state of fermentation; hence, from Autumn to Spring, or the months of October and March, have ever been

deemed the most favorable months for brewing the best malt liquor, the latter being considered the most fitted, as the beer has so many cold months immediately succeeding for it to ripen and grow fine in; besides it does not want such watching and tending as the March beer does, in putting in and taking out the spile or peg on every change of the weather.

When river water is used for brewing, the month of October is anything but preferable, as the water is then filled with decayed and putrid vegetation; neither can the quality of the malt be well depended on at this season. Malt liquor may be brewed in any month but June, July and August.

The proportion of wort to be obtained from every bushel of malt will depend entirely on the proposed strength of the liquor required. For ale or beer of a superior kind the produce of the first mashing only should be used; but if the ordinary or usual drinking ale is wanted, take the produce of the first and second mashings, and use the third for table beer.

CLEANSING AND FLAVORING BEER.

There are several simple and innoxious articles which can be used for this purpose by the private brewer—namely, Spanish juice, licorice root, cardamon and caraway seeds, and dried orange peel powdered; these are very excellent when used judiciously; but the public brewer is prohibited by law from using any other articles than malt, hops, and sugar. Honey is also an excellent assistant to beer and ale; about two pounds to a quarter of malt being put into the copper just before the wort is turned out, or long enough to melt and incorporate with the mass. The same plan should be adopted with everything used for this purpose—that is, throwing it in when the wort is at the full boiling point, for then it will not fall to the bottom without mixing. When, however, Spanish juice is used, it will be necessary to tie it in a net bag and suspend it. Salt and ground ginger, or salt and other spice, are excellent for cleansing beer.

PORTER BREWING FOR FAMILIES.

To make this beverage, three sorts of malt are required, namely, pale, brown, and blown malt. The peculiar flavor of this liquor is given by the brown and blown malt, and no other material or ingredient whatever is required different from other sorts of beer. The mixture of malt may be composed of half pale or amber, and half brown malt; or, take for a hogshead, four bushels of pale or amber malt, two of brown, and fourteen pounds of patent blown malt, and six pounds of the best brown hops. These proportions will make excellent porter, but the following may be used for a second-rate quality:—Two bushels and a half of amber, a bushel and a half of brown malt, and four pounds of hops, with sufficient burnt sugar to give the desired color; or it may be brewed with all amber malt, using blown malt, or sugar coloring, instead of the brown malt.

The water for mashing must be lower than for beer or ale, and

be reduced to 164 or 166 degrees for the first mash, according to the instructions already laid down. All the processes are conducted the same as for beer or ale, with this exception, that blown malt is boiled with the wort in a copper, and the second malt, if boiled separate, should be boiled violently for two or three hours; and as there is generally but one quality of porter, the two kinds of wort are run together into the tun.

Twenty-eight gallons of cold water may be run into the tun for table porter, which should be managed as table beer. If the color is not sufficiently high it may be heightened by using a pound of Spanish juice with the wort in the boiler, or by the addition of burnt sugar.

TO CALCULATE THE GRAVITY OF MIXED WORT.

When two or more sorts of wort are to be mixed together, their mean gravity must be taken, which is done thus:

Multiply the quantity of each wort by its respective gravity; add the product together, and divide by the number of gallons. The result will be their gravity when mixed together. Thus:

Suppose we have two worts, the gravity of the first wort 60, and the dip to show 60 gallons; the second wort at the gravity of 30, and containing 48 gallons, we should thus arrive at the gravity:

60	48	60	108)5040(46 72-108
48	30	60	432
108	1440	3600	720
gallons in the whole.		1440	648
		5040	72

Showing the gravity of the two, when mixed together, to be 46 72-108, or it may be called 46 and a half.

To ascertain the gravity at per barrel.—Multiply the number of barrels by the pounds per barrel for the first and second worts, as in the last example, and divide by the number of barrels in the whole. The product will be the gravity per barrel. The following is a simple illustration:

Suppose the first wort to be 10 barrels, at 14 pounds per barrel; the second wort 8 barrels, at 5 pounds per barrel; what is their gravity?

10	×	14	=	140
8	×	5		40
18				18)180(10 per barrel.

The Excise, when taking the dip of hot wort in the coolers, always allow 10 per cent. for evaporation and condensation; and if the same allowance is made when taking hot wort in the copper, the raw and boiled gravities would very nearly correspond. After deducting 10 per cent. from the first wort, an allowance of the gravity of one barrel should be added to the second for every sixty pounds of hops used in the first boiling, which will be carried over to the second wort. This will be near about the quantity of wort they will retain.

FERMENTATION.

The fermentation of beer or ale is a very important part in the process of brewing. The quantity of extract obtained from the malt depends greatly upon the heat of the water used for mashing, and on the mashing process being properly conducted; but whether that extract be rich or poor, the flavor of the beer or ale, and its ultimate success in the cellar, depends upon the wort being properly and sufficiently fermented in the tun and casks.

Fermentation increases the heat, and decreases the gravity of the wort, altering altogether its original character by a decomposition of its parts, or a conversion of its saccharine principle into alcohol, which gives to it that vinous pungency for which it is esteemed. If the fermentation is not carried far enough, the abundant sweet principle of the wort will not be sufficiently changed to give it the necessary vinous taste, and it will be sickly and cloying, deficient of strength, and liable to become ropy. When the fermentation is carried too far in the tun, the vinous flavor is partly lost; and if still lower, the yeast becomes, as it were, fixed in it, from the ale or beer having lost its natural energy to throw it off, and it will have a flat, stale, and disagreeable taste. Fretting then ensues in the cask, and from being deficient of body it soon becomes sour, unless speedily drunk.

All beer for keeping should be fermented in the tun to about one-fourth its original gravity, in a temperature of the gyle not exceeding 70 degrees. Lighter beer about one-third; but in no case should it be allowed to reach so far as one-half. In winter, the fermentation of weak beer must not be carried quite so far as in the summer, as more unfermented matter must be left to nourish it in the cask during the cold weather, which will counteract its ripening. Some allowance should also be made for the time the ale or beer is intended to be kept.

Strong wort will bear a greater proportionate fermentation than weak wort, and consequently be stronger and more sparkling. Beer of this kind, intended to be kept, should be fermented so low as to insure transparency and softness, with a proper degree of strength, for it will have time to bring itself round. Still, care must be taken to leave a sufficient quantity of unfermented matter for the supply of the gradual decomposition, the quantity left being proportionate to the time the beer is intended to be kept. Wort of 50 or 60 degrees gravity will keep well for two or three years, if reduced to two-fifths, or at least one-fourth. Ale is not fermented so much as beer, therefore a considerable portion of the saccharine matter still remains in the liquid, apparently unaltered.

In conducting this process, both the thermometer and saccharometer must be the guide; the last is indispensable. The results given by these should be carefully noted in a book kept for the purpose, with the heat of the atmosphere at the time the observations are made, which will serve as a guide for any future brewing.

As soon as the head forms a brown, thick, yeasty appearance, and is inclined to fall, it must be immediately skimmed off. Par-

ticular attention must be paid to this point. It is at all times better to skim it before it begins to drop, than allow it to pass again through the beer, which will give it a rank, disagreeable taste, termed "yeast bitten;" neither will it fine well in the cask. After the head is skimmed off, a portion should then be taken out, tried by the saccharometer, and noted; and if it is not sufficiently fermented it should be roused well up, and skimmed every two hour until the required gravity is nearly attained, when it should be watched with the greatest attention, and cleansed with a little salt and bean-flour, and any other flavoring ingredient may then be added, such as ground ginger, cardamon, caraway seeds, &c., and well mixed with it immediately it is reduced to the desired point.

The Acetous Fermentation may arise from premature fermentation, through the mashing heat being take too low, when it may commence in the tun, underback, or coolers. If in the mash tun, the wort will ferment very rapidly, and produce a large quantity of yeast; but of course the liquor will be sour, therefore less yeast will be required to ferment it.

When the first mash is affected, all the subsequent ones will share the same fate, and no extra quantity of hops or boiling that may be given to it will restore it to a sound condition.

It may also arise from the mashing heat being taken too high. When this is the case, the fermentation is languid, the yeast head is very low, and appears brown or fiery, accompanied with a hissing noise, and occasionally it will appear as if boiling. A larger quantity of yeast than usual is necessary to be added to wort of this description, to force the fermentation, and to discharge the yeast freely, in order that as little as possible may remain in the liquor, which would otherwise fret and become sour.

The acetous fermentation may also arise from premature fermentation, either in the underback or coolers: hence, fretting ensues, and the liquor continually generates acidity.

Acidity in beer may be neutralized by chalk, lime, alkalies, &c., but it cannot be totally destroyed without spoiling the liquor.

THE BEER CELLAR.

When beer is drawn off into the casks, the next consideration is the cellarage.

At some places, it is usual to store the beer in a kind of shed or outhouse. In this case a northerly direction should be chosen, as much sheltered as possible, and free from any currents of air; for if these were to be admitted, or have access through the cellar, they would cause many alterations in the liquor, and keep it in so unsettled a state as to render it unfit for drinking. A cellar underground is almost indispensable for the well keeping of beer. The average heat should be about 50 degrees—at no time should it exceed 54 or 55, even in winter, and in summer the cellar cannot be kept too cool and clean.

During the summer months empty the tap-tubs daily into a cask which should be kept for the purpose of containing slops and grounds. But if the taps are in good repair, and you are careful

in drawing the beer, there will be little or no slops to empty. The beer brewed in the spring should be frequently examined, as the heat may produce a second fermentation, when the spile should be loosened to give the gas vent, or it will endanger the bursting of the casks, or produce a leakage by opening the staves. Wash the floor and stairs of the cellar (if paved with stones) weekly, and in winter sweep them clean every ten or twelve days at the utmost. By attention to these duties the cellar will smell sweet on being opened, and the beer keep cool and fine during the summer months; but if these things are neglected it is liable to become sour.

Order, as well as cleanliness, is essentially requisite in the cellar business. A good cellarman will pride himself on the good ordering and conducting of the cellar. To accomplish this, a cupboard and rack should be fixed in a dry situation to keep the tools in, and when the work is finished in the cellar they should be looked up before leaving, and put in the cupboard and rack, when they can readily be found in case of any emergency.

The tools requisite for the beer cellar or brew-house, are three or four iron-bound tap-tubs; one or two wood funnels; a pair of strong folding steps; some taps; some spigots and faucets; a hammer or adze, and a hoop driver; six tin spouts, with the top broad and flat like a baker's shovel, for the beer to work through when in the casks; a large tub and a skimmer, with whisk for the yeast; a stamped bushel measure, to measure the malt; a pair of scales, with stamped lead or iron-weights (these should be kept dry), for the hops, or a pair of steelyards; an iron or copper bowl; lade pails, hair sieves, buckets or pails, a few bulrushes, and a chinker to stop any leaks that may happen in the groving or chinks of the casks.

Although every attention may have been paid to the brewing, and the beer obtained be satisfactory, yet, if it is not properly stored, all the labor and care which have been bestowed upon it will be lost.

The casks for beer should be perfectly clean, sweet, and dry. New casks should be well seasoned and prepared according to the instructions already given, or they will impart to the beer a bad and flat taste. Old casks that have been any length of time out of use, are liable to become musty; therefore particular attention should be paid them before they are used.

Malt liquors, from bad cellars, and a variety of other causes, often ferment in the casks and grow thick, or are otherwise injured; therefore at different periods watch their progress by drawing a little in a glass from a spile-hole in front.

When the deterioration is caused by the changes of the weather or a bad cellar, the beer or ale will often fine and mellow of itself. Should it remain still out of order, put it again into a new state of fermentation. For this purpose mix bean or wheat flour into a paste with treacle, and if it also proves hard or tart, add to these some calcined oyster-shells pulverized, or a little salt of tartar. Two or three of these balls, as large as the bunghole will admit, being put into each hogshead, and well stirred up in it, will promote its briskness and correct the acidity,

All beer or ale that has any sort of alkali added to destroy the acidity should be drunk as speedily as possible, or it will soon become vapid; therefore it is best only to add the treacle and flour without the alkali, and put a little salt of tartar into the can or pitcher as it is drawn, which will answer the purpose equally well.

The fermentation of beer may be checked by opening the bung-hole for two or three days. If it does not stop, add some powdered marble or gypsum; or two or three pounds of oyster-shells should be washed, well dried in an oven, and pulverized; or add a little oxymuriate of potass, or sulphate of potass. Mix any one of these preparations into the beer with the forcing rod, and as soon as the fermentation has subsided rack it off into clean casks, and suspend in it a bag of wheat which has been boiled in some water until it has burst, with a pint of the water it was boiled in.

Wheat malt, or high dried malt ground, is preferred by many for this purpose, using about two or three quarts to a hogshead; or it may again be rendered brisk and pleasant by boiling about three pounds of honey in as many gallons of the beer until it is thoroughly dissolved. When cold, mix it with the rest in the cask, and bung close. The stands on which the casks rest, if not perfect, firm, and steady, will re-excite the fermentation by disturbing the bottoms, from the rocking motion, if it should chance to be touched.

To keep strong beer in a proper state of preservation, when once the vessel is broached, regard must be paid to the time in which it may be drunk. If there is a quick draught, the beer will continue good to the bottom; if a slow draught, then, when it is rather more than half drawn off, bottle the remainder, or towards the last it will be flat and finally sour.

In proportion to the quantity of liquor contained in one cask, so will it be a shorter or longer time in ripening. A vessel which contains two hogsheads of beer will require twice as much time to ripen as one containing a hogshead. It is considered that no vessel should be used for strong beer that is intended to be kept of a less size than a hogshead, as one containing that quantity, if it is fit to draw in a year, will have body enough to support it from two to four years; provided it has a sufficient strength of malt and hops; but it has been found by experience to keep well in quarter casks, which is a size very convenient for small families, as the contents can be drank within a reasonable time.

With respect to the management of small beer, the first consideration should be to make it tolerably good in quality, which will be found more economical. It is advisable, therefore, where there is a good cellar, to brew a stock of good table ale in March or October, or in both months, to be kept if possible in whole or half hogsheads. That brewed in March should not be tapped for three or four months, or until October, and that brewed in October not until the March following, having this regard to the quantity, that a family of the same number of people will drink at least a third more in summer than in winter; and fine table ale in bottle is much esteemed, and drank by many families during the summer months.

About a week or ten days before any beer or ale is required to be tapped for drinking, two or three casks should be tried, in order to select the one of the finest flavor and quality; and instead of using the common spile when the cask is tapped, there are vent pegs, to be obtained from ironmongers, which do not allow the gas to escape out of the cask, whereby the liquor remains good to the last. If the beer is not sufficiently fine for drinking, it should be fined with isinglass. Take about two ounces for a hogshead, and dissolve it in some stale or sour beer. When it is perfectly dissolved, add some more beer to it, whisking it to a strong froth, and stir it well into the cask with a long stick. In warm weather it may be necessary to use a handful of salt, or fine dry sand, to increase the gravity and stop the fretting Silver sand is mostly used in London for this purpose; but isinglass should never be used for fining without absolute necessity; it has a tendency to flatten and impoverish the beer, by depriving it of the vegetable principle called "tannin," which gives it the racy and slightly rough taste.

The scalded hops are put into the beer when the fomentation ceases, for the purpose of fining it.

Instead of using the heading for beer or ale that is commonly adopted by victuallers, and which consists of equal portions of roach alum and green copperas, take the white of one egg to every nine gallons, or use about six or seven to the hogshead, and mix them into a stiff paste with bean or good wheat flour, and a little ginger; rouse it well into the cask with a forcing rod, about three or four days or a week before it is tapped, which will give it a good head, and make it mantle in the glass.

For bottling ale or beer, the same attention should be paid to the bottles, the choice of corks, and state of the air. Wet or damp bottles cause the liquor put into them to turn mouldy or mothery; therefore be particular that they are dry. Fill the bottles up to the neck, and let them stand uncorked about twenty-four hours to flatten; cork them well; tie them down with wire or string, and pack them in the bins on their sides, either in sand or sawdust. This last must be perfectly dry, or it will heat and endanger the bursting of the bottles. If some of them are required for immediate use they may be packed in hay.

Before bottling any sort of malt liquor, first ascertain whether it is in a fit condition. Beer should never be put into bottles until the fermentation is extremely slow, which is seldom the case with strong beer under nine or twelve months. Weak or table ale may be bottled much sooner. If its state is but slightly saccharine, and has but little briskness, it is in a fit state for bottling; but if it spouts up with force from the peg-hole, it is a sign that the liquor is still too active to be bottled with safety. Bottling should generally be done in the spring, that the increasing heat may bring it up in bottle, which is difficult in winter, unless it is packed in a moderately warm place, or in hay, for a few days before it is drawn, as the atmosphere affects it very powerfully. Beer from the top to the middle of the hogshead is the best for bottling, and will ripen sooner in the bottles than the lower part, which is always less clear, and not generally considered so fine in

flavor. When once a cask of any liquor is begun to be drawn off for bottling, it should not be left until the whole is bottled off, otherwise it will vary in flavor.

Weak malt liquors ripen much quicker in the bottles, and are more violent than the strong, and endanger their bursting in a greater degree. Inspect the bins frequently, to ascertain the state of the liquor. The bursting of one bottle shows that it is full up; the rest should then be stood on their bottoms. To know when it is up, hold the bottle to the light, and if there is a rising above the beer, it is then fit to drink. When the remaining portion of a cask of beer that has been on draught is bottled, put a piece of loaf sugar, about the size of a walnut, into each when they are corked, which will forward the ripening, and improve the quality. The same plan should be adopted with bottled table ale in summer, which will make it a very pleasant and refreshing drink. A few stoned raisins being put into each bottle will also have the same effect.

If on opening any bottled beer it is not sufficiently brisk, or has become flat from bad casks, age or improper management, the introduction of a piece of sugar into each bottle will restore its briskness, after the bottles have been well corked, and laid on their sides in the bins for some time.

A very cheap and excellent method to preserve beer in a bottle, where there is not the convenience of a cellar, is to sink some holes in the ground, and bury in each hole a large oil jar, and place the bottles in the jars. Every jar will hold about two dozen. Put a cover over each, with earth on the top.

BREWING RED HOT.

This mode of brewing is recommended to family use by its economy as well as simplicity, the use of instruments being dispensed with, as well as coolers and working tubs, by its unfailing success all through the summer, and even in the hottest weather, during a practice of many years; and finally, its expedition, the beer being made and casked all in one day. Two things, however, are indispensable to the process; the first, that the copper, mash-tub, under-back, and casks, should be all as clean as a wine decanter; and, second, that the cellar brewed in should be of an even temperature (say ranging between 45 and 60 degrees); if it exceeds 60 degrees in summer, it is of no use attempting to brew, as the beer will not keep.

Let us suppose (going upon a very small scale) that the brewer has three 18-gallon casks; send one to the best public brewer who may live conveniently near, to be filled with good clear beer of moderate strength. Get from a first-rate malster three bushels of best pale malt, ready ground; and three pounds of the best hops—the hops for each bushel of malt may vary from half a pound to two pounds. Boil the water, and run it into the mash-tub; wait ten minutes, and put in the malt; mash it well in the usual way, cover it up, and let it remain three hours; before you draw it off, have, in some vessel near, a copperful or two of water, nearly boiling. Then, when you begin to draw off the first wort, take a

clean watering-pot, dip out the hot water that is handy, and water the grains in the mash-tub, keeping the mash-tub tap running till you have sufficient to fill up the copper, and set it boiling. This drains the grains as effectually as three mashes, if well done; the process should be very gradual, taking half an hour at least; the copper must then be watched till it beats pure, as the brewers call it—that is, the wort breaks in flakes—and then add the hops. Boil for an hour and a half, rake out the fire, draw from the cask of beer one-third, and put it into one of the barrels, and another third into the second—you need not be very nice about the exact quantity; thus, each cask will be one-third full. Then very carefully put into the casks the hot liquor, hops and all, stirring it up that the hops may be equally divided, and your brewing is done. You will, however, have kept back about two gallons in a large pitcher to fill the casks, as the liquor sinks in them from evaporation, for three weeks or a month; at the end of that period you may tap it. When the first cask is empty, clean it well out; draw off three gallons of the second cask, and brew another bushel of malt as before; and so go on brewing a bushel at a time. This produces the best beer that can be drunk.

TO MAKE BEER WITH SUGAR.

Boil fifty-four gallons of water in a copper; run it into a mash-tub, and let it cool to 90 degrees Fahr. Put in four bushels of malt; let it stand three hours, covered with sacks, to keep the steam in; run into underback, and immediately pump into copper. Mix, and stir eight pounds of hops with it. Boil three hours; run it into a trough to cool, mixing twenty-five pounds of sugar with the hand in the wort as it runs along the trough. Cool to 70 degrees, and let down into the working-tub. Make a second wort in precisely the same way as the first, with the same malt and hops, and twenty-five pounds of sugar; cool it separately, and mix it with first wort in the working-tub. Put one pint of yeast into flat-bowl; put bowl into wort, so that wort can just touch yeast. Let it work twelve hours, during which time skim off yeast three times. Keep it covered, except when being skimmed, and back off into casks in cellar. It may work a fortnight. Fill up the casks every morning with what has worked out of the cork-hole into the tub beneath. Skim it before returning it to cask, cleaning away all the yeast which rises to the top of the cask through the bung-hole. Put three or four handfuls of dry hops into casks through bung-hole, and bung it up. If very strong beer is required, keep the first wort by itself. If the usual strength is sufficient, four bushels of malt, fifty pounds ot sugar, and, eight pounds of hops make one hundred and eight gallons of beer. The sugar should be of a strong, grainy quality.

Another method of mixing Sugar.—Immediately before running wort into cooler, take out of copper two pailfuls of wort, and empty into small cask. Mix the sugar with it; pour back into copper, mixing thoroughly, and directly run it off into cooler. Do not boil wort after sugar is added. Very good beer may be made by putting seven pounds of raw sugar in the place of a bushel of

malt; but the bran should first be boiled in the water in which it is dissolved, and strained off, to give that "body" to the liquor that the farinaceous portion of the malt supplies. After, the hops to be boiled in the wort, and fermentation effected, as with malt beer.

TREACLE BEER.

Take of linseed two ounces; treacle, one pound and a half; cream of tartar, one ounce and a quarter; best ginger (bruised), one ounce; boiling water, two gallons. Put the ingredients (the treacle, linseed, cream of tartar, and ginger) into a large pot, and pour the boiling water upon them; let them stand till cold, and then add six ounces of yeast. Let it stand to ferment for a few hours (about seven or eight); bottle it in pint bottles, and tie the corks down. This is a very refreshing drink in the summer time; it is also very agreeable as well as wholesome, and is much used in the north of England.

A very pleasant and cheap beverage may be made also in the following manner:—Boil five ounces of hops in nine gallons of water one hour; add three pounds and a half of treacle, a little yeast, and let it ferment.

PALE ALE.

To make a barrel of pale ale equal to any that is brewed, use three bushels of malt, or four, if strength is desired; eight or nine pounds of hops, according to the required degrees of bitterness, one pound of camomile flowers, strewed in a jar and strained. Put the camomile flowers and the hops in at the same time. Boil the malt and water till the liquor begins to fine itself; and that is the time to add the hops and flowers.

BEER FROM POTATOES.

In Silesia they prepare a very wholesome and palatable potato-beer, by which every family can supply itself at a trifling expense. Twenty-five gallons of such beer are made from half a bushel of potatoes, ten pounds of malt, half a pound of hops, and two quarts of yeast.

INSTANTANEOUS BEER.

Take about a pint and a half of water, four teaspoonfuls of ginger, and a tablespoonful of lemon juice—sweeten it to taste with syrup or white sugar. Have ready an ordinary glass bottle, a cork to fit the bottle, a string to tie it down, and a mallet to drive down the cork. Put into the bottle a heaped teaspoonful of the supercarbonate of soda, pour in the liquor, cork immediately, tie it down, then shake the whole up well, cut the string and the cork will fly out. Turn it out, and drink immediately.

SPRUCE BEER.

To make White Spruce Beer.—To ten gallons of water put six pounds of sugar and four ounces of essence of spruce; then add

yeast, and work it as in making ginger beer. Bottle immediately in half-pint bottles.

Brown Spruce Beer.—This beer is made in the same manner as the preceding, only treacle is substituted for the sugar. It is an exceedingly wholesome summer drink, especially for persons afflicted with pains of the kidneys.

TO CONVERT SOUR BEER INTO VINEGAR.

First clear the beer with isinglass dissolved in some of the sour beer. When perfectly dissolved, it should be beaten up with a whisk and some more of the sour beer, until it forms a froth. It should then be poured into the cask, and the contents well stirred up with a long stick. About half an ounce of isinglass will be sufficient for a firkin.

TO CORRECT ACIDITY IN BEER OR CIDER.

Take one pound of pulverized chalk and put it into a hogshead; in a week the liquor will have become mild and pleasant.

TO RECOVER ROPY BEER OR CIDER.

Put half a pound of mustard seed into a hogshead: bung it down closely, and it will be fit for use in a week or a fortnight.

TO MAKE GINGER BEER.

To every gallon of spring water, put one ounce of the best white ginger, sliced one pound of lump sugar, and two ounces of lemon juice; boil it about an hour, take off the scum, then run it through a hair sieve into a tub; when cooled down to 70 degrees, add yeast in the proportion of half a pint to nine gallons; keep it in a temperate situation two days, during which time it may be stirred six or eight times; then put it into a cask, which must be kept full, and the workings taken off at the bung-hole with a spoon. In a fortnight, add half a pint of finings (made of pickled isinglass steeped in beer) to nine gallons. The cask must be kept full, and the scum taken off as it rises at the bung-hole. Twenty-four hours after fining, the liquor may be bottled off. In the summer time it will be ripe and fit to drink in a fortnight.

HOW TO BREW A BOWL OF PUNCH.

Take two large fresh lemons with rough skins, quite ripe, and some large lumps of double-refined sugar. Rub the sugar over the lemons till it has absorbed all the yellow part of the skins. Then put into the bowl these lumps, and as much more as the juice of the lemons may be supposed to require; for no certain weight can be mentioned, as the acidity of a lemon cannot be known till tried, and therefore this must be determined by the taste. Then squeeze the lemon-juice upon the sugar; and with the bruiser press the sugar; and the juice will together, for a great deal of the richness and fine flavor of the punch depends on this

rubbing and mixing process being thoroughly performed. Then mix this up with boiling water (soft water is best) till the whole is rather cool. When this mixture (which is now called the sherbet) is to your taste, take brandy and rum in equal quantities, and put them to it, mixing the whole well together again. The quantity of liquor must be according to your taste; two good lemons are generally enough to make four quarts of punch, including a quart of liquor, with half a pound of sugar; but this depends much on taste, and on the strength of the spirit. As the pulp is disagreeable to some persons, the sherbet may be strained before the liquor is put in. Some strain the lemon before they put it to the sugar, which is improper, as when the pulp and sugar are well mixed together it adds much to the richness of the punch. When only rum is used, about half a pint of porter will soften the punch; and even when both rum and brandy are used, the porter gives a richness, and to some a very pleasant flavor.

Another Method.—Have a bowl to hold a gallon. Put into it a pound and a half of loaf sugar; add the lemons, rubbing the rind of them with lumps of sugar to extract the oil; pour in boiling water, and taste the mixture; it should be excellent lemonade; until this be perfect, it will be useless to add the wine and spirit.

When the lemonade is the desired strength, sweetness, and flavor, mix in it equal quantities of brandy and rum, a smaller proportion of rum shrub, with a glass of wine. Punch should be mild yet strong, tasting of all the ingredients of which it is composed, yet no one of them preponderating over the rest.

An equal mixture of brandy and rum, sugar, the proper proportion of lemon juice, a glass of port wine, and a little rum shrub mixed with boiling water, will also make excellent punch.

MILK PUNCH.

Pare the rind off twelve lemons and two Seville oranges thinly, put them to steep in six pints of rum, brandy, or whisky, (whichever you like to make the punch of), for twenty-four hours, then add two pounds of refined sugar, three pints of water, two nutmegs grated, and a pint of lemon-juice; stir it till the sugar is dissolved, then take three pints of new milk, boiling hot, and pour on the ingredients: let it stand twelve hours, closely covered; strain through a jelly bag till quite clear; bottle it.

Another Method.—Fill a bottle as full as possible of lemon-peel, and then add as much brandy as it will admit; let this (corked) stand in the sun two or three days, then mix with the brandy (having poured it out) two pounds of sugar, two quarts of water, four of brandy, two of boiling milk, (boiled with spice), and about a pint of lemon-juice. When this is cold, strain it till quite clear, and bottle it instantly.

COLD PUNCH.

Take a pint of Madeira or Sherry wine; a pint of Rhenish wine; and the same quantity of brandy or rum; the juice of four lemons, and the yellow rinds of two of them rubbed off on a piece of loaf sugar. Mix the whole together with a quart of water, and as

much sugar as will sweeten it. This will be found a very superior beverage for parties, routs or balls. It may be bottled for use.

GEORGE THE FOURTH'S PUNCH.

Extract the essence from the rinds of three lemons, by rubbing them with lumps of sugar; put these into a large jug with the peel of the oranges, and of two lemons extremely thin, the juice of four oranges and of ten lemons, and six glasses of calf's-feet jelly in a liquid state. Stir these well together, pour to them two quarts of boiling water, cover the jug closely, and set it near the fire for a quarter of an hour; then strain the mixture into a punch-bowl, and sweeten it with a bottle of capillaire; add half a pint of white wine, one pint of French brandy, one pint of rum, and one bottle of curacoa. Stir the punch as the spirit is poured in.

NORFOLK PUNCH.

Pare off the rinds of six lemons and three oranges. Squeeze the juice into a large jar, put to it two quarts of brandy, one quart of white wine, the peels, one quart of milk, and one pound and a quarter of sugar. Stir them well together, and let them stand for twenty-four hours. Strain through a jelly bag till clear, and bottle for use.

BISHOP.

Roast a lemon, and stick it full of cloves; meantime, boil in a pint of water equal quantities of spice to suit the palate, such as mace, cinnamon, cloves, etc. Put the lemon into a bowl, and pour over it the extract from the spices. Now add a bottle of port, made nearly boiling, and sweeten the whole with loaf sugar. Bishop may also be made with claret, or equal parts of port and claret.

SYLLABUB.

Take half a pint of port and half a pint of sherry wine, put them into a deep bowl, with a little cinnamon and nutmeg, and fine powdered loaf-sugar to taste: then milk upon it, until nearly full, and a fine froth is produced; let it stand about twenty minutes or half an hour, then grate nutmeg over, and cover with clotted cream. The addition of a little lemon or orange juice, and the rinds of two or three lemons or oranges rubbed off on the rough surface of a piece of loaf-sugar, with the wine, will much improve it. In some countries cider and brandy are substituted for the wine.

As this method cannot at all times be conveniently adopted, especially by those who do not keep cows, the milk warm from the cow (which is necessary, as milk artificially warmed does not do so well) may be put into a tea or coffee pot, and poured in a small

stream at a good distance upon the ingredients in the bowl.

COOL CUP.

Take half a pound of lump sugar, and rub each piece well over a lemon, to extract the flavor of the rind; when finished put the sugar into a jug, and squeeze the lemon juice over it, then add half a pint of rum or gin, according to flavor desired, and the quarter of a nutmeg finely grated; let those ingredients digest together for ten minutes, and then finally add one quart or three pints of fresh cold spring water. If a lump of ice be put in, so much cooler will the Cool Cup be. By some, digesting for ten minutes may appear useless; but during the ten minutes the spirit extracts the essential oil from the nutmeg and lemon-peel, which would be done by boiling water, if that were used instead of cold.

COOL CIDER CUP.

Take one bottle of cider, half a pint of good brandy or whisky, a quarter of a pound of finely-pounded loaf sugar, and a large tumblerful of pounded ice. Mix and serve it in glasses. This will be found a cool and delicious summer drink, and suitable at any time for ball or rout parties. It will be much approved on such occasions by the ladies, if a pint of good old sherry be substituted for the brandy or whisky, and a bottle of soda water or lemonade added, with some grated nutmegs; or if half the quantity of brandy with half a pint of sherry be used.

PURL.

This is a beverage which is held in high estimation in many places. It is made with a mixture of beer or ale (formerly amber ale was only used), and gin and bitters, or gin bitters. The gin and bitters are put into a half-pint pewter pot, and the ale warmed over a brisk fire, and added to it, at the exact warmth for a person to drink such a portion at a single draught.

WARM ALE CUP.

One quart of ale, one glass of brandy, two glasses of sherry, and a quarter of a pound of lump sugar. Spice according to the palate. Boil the sugar in half the ale, and then mix the whole well together.

EGG FLIP.

Take two eggs, and break them into a basin; add about three ounces of sugar, and beat those together. In the meantime make a pint of table beer or mild porter hot, but do not let it boil, otherwise the eggs will be curdled, in which state they are termed by many "hen and chickens." When the beer is near boiling, take it off, and mix the eggs and sugar already prepared and the hot beer together, by pouring the mixture backwards and forwards from the pot to the basin. Add a wine-glass of gin, or any

other spirit which may be preferred; but gin is the liquor generally used. Grate a little nutmeg or ginger on the top, and it will be ready for drinking.

EGG HOT.

The principal difference between this and the preceding is, that it contains no spirit. Take one pint of good ale, three eggs, two ounces of sugar, with sufficient nutmeg and ginger to the palate. Well beat the eggs with half the beer and the sugar; then heat the ingredients in a saucepan to near the boiling point. Proceed as above, adding the remainder of the ale and spice.

SAILOR'S FLIP.

Take three eggs and six ounces of sugar, half a pint of rum, and one pint of water. Mix the sugar with the eggs, then add the rum. When the water is very near, but not quite, at the boiling point, pour in the previously prepared mixture, and proceed as before.

A STIMULATING TONIC FOR INVALIDS.

One pint of port wine or sherry, one ounce of isinglass, half an ounce of gum-arabic, two ounces of brown sugar-candy, half a nutmeg grated. Add lemon-peel and cloves to flavor it. Simmer by the fire till it is all dissolved, but do not let it boil. Strain through clear muslin, and give the size of a nutmeg two or three times a day. This is a slightly stimulating tonic, and very nutritious.

A GRATEFUL BEVERAGE FOR A COLD MORNING.

From half a pint to a pint of sweet milk boiled, to which is added a teaspoonful of curry-powder, and sugar to taste. This, drunk warm, will be found a grateful and warming beverage for those of weak constitutions, and who may require to go out on cold raw mornings before breakfast; and will be much better than ardent spirits.

CORDIALS AND COMPOUNDS.

The following recipes are given on a very small scale, and may be mixed at any time in a few minutes; and, if carefully prepared, will be fit for immediate use. The taste may be varied in any particular case, either to make the cordial sweeter or stronger flavored.

Peppermint.—Rectified spirit of wine, half a pint; oil of peppermint, seven drops; mix. Add one pint of syrup (sweetened water), and it is ready for use.

Aniseseed.—Rectified spirits of wine, half a pint; English oil of aniseseed, eight drops; mix, and add a pint of syrup.

Cloves.—No. 1.—Rectified spirits of wine, half a pint; oil of cloves, seven drops; mix, and add a pint of syrup.

Cloves.—No. 2.—For a quart. Rectified spirits of wine, two

ounces; oil of cloves, ten drops; mix. British brandy, one pint; cherry brandy, a quarter of a pint; syrup, a quarter of a pint; water, half a pint; mix for use.

Cederat Cordial.—Rectified spirits of wine, half a pint; oil of cederat, six drops; oil of lemon, four drops; oil of bergamot, ten drops; mix, add one pint of syrup, and color with spinach juice.

Cinnamon Cordial.—Rectified spirits of wine, half a pint; oil of cassia, eight drops; and syrup, one pint.

Ratafia.—Rectified spirits of wine, half a pint; essence of bitter almonds, ten drops; essence of lemon, two drops; oil of bergamot, two drops; mix, add one pint syrup, and as much tartaric acid as will cover a ten-cent piece.

Lovage.—Rectified spirits of wine, half a pint; oil of nutmegs, ten drops; oil of cassia, five drops; oil of caraway, ten drops; mix, add one pint of syrup.

Cherry Brandy.—For a quart. Oil of olives and cassia, of each five drops; spirits of wine, half a pint; mix together, add one pint and a quarter of British brandy, the juice of equal parts of black and red cherries, half a pint; syrup, a quarter of a pint; mix well together.

Rum Shrub.—For a quart. Spirits of wine, half a pint; essence of lemon, twenty drops; mix together, add one pint of rum, a quarter of a pint of raisin or white currant wine; shake well together, dissolve a quarter of an ounce of citric acid in a quarter of a pint of water, add half a pint of syrup, and mix all together for immediate use.

Brandy Shrub.—This is made the same as rum shrub, only using brandy instead.

Usquebaugh.—Rectified spirits of wine, half a pint; oil of juniper, aniseseed, nutmegs, cloves, and cassia, of each three drops; mix well, and add a pint of syrup.

Creme de Noyeau.—For one quart. Blanch two ounces of bitter almonds, and infuse them in a pint and a half of proof spirits for ten days, strain off the infusion, and add half a pint of syrup; mix well together for immediate use.

LIQUEURS, RATAFIAS, &c.

Ratafia de Noyeau.—Bruise the kernels of one hundred peaches or apricots, and infuse them for ten days in one quart of proof spirit; strain the infusion off clear, add one quart of syrup, and mix them together.

Ratafia of Cherries.—Morello cherries, with their kernels bruised, four pounds; proof spirits, two quarts; let them infuse for three weeks, strain and press the cherries, to obtain all the juice from them, and sweeten with three pints of syrup.

Ratafia of Strawberries.—One gallon of ripe strawberries, proof spirit, two quarts; infuse for ten days, strain the infusion off clear, and sweeten with a pint of syrup, and make it a light pink with cochineal, if the color is not deep enough.

Ratafia of Black Currants.—Three pounds of ripe black currants,

cinnamon and cloves, of each half a drachm; proof spirits, one gallon; infuse fourteen days, strain and press off the liquor, and add two pounds of loaf sugar.

Curacoa.—The dried yellow peel of bitter oranges, four ounces; mace, half an ounce; white rum, two quarts; let the ingredients infuse for a week. Strain the infusion off clear, make a syrup with three pounds of loaf sugar, and three quarts of water; put it on the fire to dissolve the sugar, and take off any scum which may rise. When cold, mix it with the spirit.

Noyeau.—Bitter almonds blanched and cut in small pieces, a quarter of a pound; white brandy or clean proof spirit, two quarts: let these infuse for ten days, then pour off the spirit. Dissolve three pounds of loaf sugar in three quarts of boiling water, carefully removing any scum which may rise: when cold, add it to the spirit. Mix well, and let it stand a few days to fine; and, if necessary, filter it through blotting paper. If required colored, use one ounce of red sanders shavings, and let it infuse with the spirit and almonds for a few days.

Martinique Noyeau.—Bitter almonds blanched, and cut in pieces, a quarter of a pound; dried orange peel, a quarter of a pound; white rum or proof spirit, two quarts; refined loaf sugar, three pounds; water, three quarts. Prepare as the last.

Shrub, as made in the West Indies.—One quart of rum, half a pint of lime juice, one pound and a half of sugar. Dissolve the sugar in the lime juice, and then mix it well with the rum; put it into a jar to settle and become mellow. This is excellent for making punch.

Punch Shrub.—Rum, two quarts; the juice of twenty-five lemons; loaf sugar, four pounds: rub off the yellow rinds of twelve of the lemons on the sugar before squeezing them, squeeze the juice from the lemons and strain it, dissolve the sugar in the juice, and mix the whole together. This is excellent for making punch.

Lemonade Shrub.—The juice of eight lemons; barberry juice, three ounces; loaf sugar, four ounces; white wine, half a pint; and the rinds of four of the lemons rubbed off on the sugar. Mix the whole together, and pass it through a filtering bag. Bottle, and use for making lemonade or sherbet.

Red Currant Shrub.—One pint of red currant juice, half a pound of loaf sugar, one pint of rum, and one quart of brandy. Mix, and let it stand eight or nine days, stirring it once a day. Strain through a filtering bag, and bottle it off.

BITTERS.

Wine Bitters.—Gentian roof, half an ounce; the yellow rinds of fresh lemons, half an ounce; long pepper, one drachm; white wine, one pint. Mix these together, and let them infuse in the wine for a week; then filter it through a bag, and bottle for use.

Spirit Bitters.—Gentian root, half an ounce; sweet orange peel (dried), a quarter of an ounce; lesser cardamon seeds (freed from

their husks), a quarter of an ounce; spirits, one pint. Infuse in the spirits for ten or twelve days, and filter for use.

Ale Bitters.—Ale, one quart; gentian root, one ounce; the yellow rind of fresh lemon peel, one ounce. Let these steep in the ale for ten days, then strain it through a bag. Bottle, and cork it up for use. This is an excellent bitter for ale.

A good Bitter.—One ounce of gentian root, a quarter of an ounce of Virginian snakeroot, one scruple of cochineal (pounded fine), and one pint of brandy. Steep these articles together for a week, then strain and bottle.

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